

ADJECTIVAL PARTICIPLES AS EMOTION WORDS

Inna Wolfson

The study in the area of emotion vocabulary, pragmatics, and the second language acquisition investigates to what extent adult Russian-speaking learners of English comprehend adjectival participles as emotion words and how frequently they use adjectival participles as emotion words in their first person oral narratives. The correlation between the level of comprehension and frequency of usage is also examined. The study includes ten participants and ten members of the control group engaged in a series of qualitative experiments with quantitative treatment. The comprehension assignments contain a number of surveys aiming at the analysis of semantico-grammatical properties, level of emotional intensity, and negativity of adjectival participles. The production tasks involve first person oral narratives to the prompts. Although experiments confirm the hypothesized infrequency of adjectival participles in oral narratives and near-native comprehension of their properties, they do not reveal any direct correlation between the level of their comprehension and usage. The results of the study are used for the suggestions for further research and ESL pedagogy.

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by

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*To the loving memory of my parents and my parents-in-law:
Mila, Grisha, Lucy, and Benya.*

“Learn a new language and get a new soul.”

—Czech Proverb

“A different language is a different vision of life.”

—Federico Fellini

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PREFACE

This project was inspired by the desire to do something meaningful for the Russian-speaking community of Minnesotans, to whom I proudly belong.

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

Imagine that a woman comes back to her American home after she has just buried her mother in her home country, Russia. The phone rings, and the dearest friend of the woman who knows where and why she has been absent for two months says, “Hey, how was the trip?” The woman cries and hangs up. The friendship of many years is broken. What has happened? What is the conflict about? The caller, who moved to the US several years earlier, had previously alienated herself from American culture. She sticks to her traditional Russian cultural belief that direct mentioning of tragic events and formal expression of condolence may be inappropriate and hurtful (sometimes, the euphemism for condolence may sound as “you know *why* I am calling...and *what* I want to say”). On the contrary, the woman, who is going through this tragic time of her life, has lived in the United States much longer than her caller and expects a formal expression of sympathy.

This real life situation is one of numerous instances of emotionally sensitive cultural differences between the native English-speaking or acculturated bilingual Americans and adult Russian-speaking users of English (ARSUEs) who have moved to the United States but have not adjusted to the new culture and the ways emotions are expressed. Awareness of such differences and difficulties has prompted my interest in the ways emotions are expressed in the target language by ARSUEs. The motivation to improve the level of production and comprehension in the second language can come from a motivated and inspired teacher who understands both cultures. Here lies the source of my inspiration and interest in the way ARSUEs use emotional vocabulary: the

desire to assist them in expressing their emotionality adequately, in the way it is accepted in the new culture and the new language, and in helping them to be understood and understand others better.

My motivation and interest in this topic comes from the fact that being on the one hand a native speaker of Russian, and on the other hand an ESL teacher and a fluent speaker of English, I can make a bridge between Russian cultural values, emotionality, norms, and the constraints of the new language the ARSUEs attempt to acquire. Furthermore, I can provide some insight—a window into the way both languages influence each other in the area of emotional expressions. Being a part of the Russian-speaking community, I have always wanted to do something meaningful for the benefit of its members.

It should be noted that the population of the Russian community or ancestry in the state of Minnesota is estimated at thirty-nine thousand people, with the highest projection at forty-six thousand people (Ethnic Harvest, 2000). However, the statistics on the Russian-speaking population are conflicting. According to the 2004 Census, the number of Russian-speakers in this state is estimated at 9,650 (Media release, 2004). These Russian speakers probably have immigrated to this particular area of the United States due to an obvious climatic similarity with their former places of residence such as St. Petersburg, Moscow, and Minsk. Other reasons for Russian-speakers' presence in this area may include activity of numerous non-profit, academic, and religious organizations, which sponsored the relocation of these Minnesota residents along with the previous settlements of earlier generations of Russian and Ukrainian immigrants. In the 1980s, the

area of Minneapolis and St. Paul had arguably the highest per capita percentage of the Russian-speaking refugees, who consisted of ethnic Jews and members of Russian Baptist and Ukrainian Unitarian churches. After the fall of the Soviet Union, the influx of Russian-speaking refugees from different Eastern European states increased considerably. According to the most recent survey of the five largest Minnesota ethnic communities (Speaking for themselves, 2000), Russian-speakers have the highest level of education. In addition, a significant number of prominent Russian-speaking scientists moved to the US to freely participate in research and academic work at local universities and research centers. The most outstanding group of scientists is led by physicists M. Shifman and A. Winestein and mathematician N. Krylov, who relocated from Moscow and Novosibirsk. Spouses of local residents and college students represent another recognizable part of this community. However, ethnic Russian Minnesotans are quite modest when it comes to their self-evaluation of their command of English. The same survey of various ethnic communities revealed that only 13% of respondents (second lowest) identified themselves as having good command of the English language.

In a broader sense, my interest in the ways emotions are expressed through cultures lies in and is inspired by my perception of emotionality (an ability to be markedly agitated in feeling or sensibilities, a tendency to be dominated by emotions; a state of emotional agitation) as one of the pivotal components of socio-cultural and pragmatic competences in second language learning. Striking differences between the emotionality scripts, which Berntsen and Rubin (2004) see as structured norms and regulations of emotional expressions and reactions expected in a certain culture, may be

manifested in numerous ways from facial and body expressions to the predominance of certain grammatical forms. From the perspectives of ARUSEs the realization and comprehension of these abundant differences between their native and target languages may present a turning point in their language learning, cultural adjustment and acculturation. From the point of view of an English as a Second Language (ESL) educator, knowledge of the students' cultural scripts, the expected patterns of certain behavior and reaction (Wierzbicka, 1992), and emotionality differences, the differences in the way emotions are expressed and perceived, may be beneficial for establishing teacher-student rapport: the information on the specificity of students' emotional setup and emotional expressions in the Russian language may provide a better understanding of the needs of learners. Being a native Russian speaker and English as a second language educator, I see my mission as solidifying the connection between the two cultures through providing some data for ESL pedagogy concerning the emotional vocabulary of ARSUEs.

Emotions are universal and culture-sensitive at the same time and are at the core of human communication. As Sartre, a French playwright and philosopher, said, "Emotion is an organized form of human existence" (1971, p.18). According to American psychologists Oatley and Jenkins, "Emotions are at the center of human mental and social life" (1996, p.85).

The way people express their emotions reflects their personality, the state of their mental health, education, upbringing, and professional affiliation along with cultural norms and values. However, according to Wierzbicka (1998), emotions can not be

transferred into different cultures. Emotions themselves and the way they are expressed differ drastically through cultures. Anthropologists (Lutz & Abu-Lughod, 1990; Plutchik & Kellerman, 1980; Rosenberg, 1990) , philosophers (Hatzimoysis, 2003; Sartre, 1971), cognitive psychologists (Kavanaugh, Zimmerberg & Fein, 1996), social and cultural psychologists (Matsumoto, Franklin, Choi, Rogers & Tatani, 2002; Niemeier & Dirven, 1997), and cognitive linguists (Altarriba & Morrier, 2004; Athanasiadou & Tabakowaka, 1998; Bamberg , 1997, and Wierzbicka, 1997,1999, 2003) have for several decades been analyzing the connections and relationships between emotions and culture, and/or cultural values in terms of the expression/suppression and revealing/concealing of the former. Both differences and similarities in cross-cultural expressions of emotions have been noted in monolingual and bilingual speakers (Dewaele & Pavlenko, 2002; Mondry & Taylor, 1998; Pavlenko, 2003; Stepanova & Coley, 2002).

Emotions can be conveyed through facial expressions, body movements, and language. Verbally, emotions are expressed through phonological means (intonation, sentence, and word stress), syntax (sentence structure), and lexicon (idioms and emotive vocabulary words). According to Wierzbicka (1988, 1992), some grammatical and morphological forms may also render or may be consistent with certain emotional coloring along with their structural and semantic meaning. For example, it is characteristic of Russian speakers to use nouns with diminutive suffixes (*solnyshko* = ‘*small sun*’) quite frequently to express tenderness. Werth (1998) studied the semantics and pragmatics of English emotion verb and participle complementation to find out the pattern of emotional expressiveness through these grammatical forms.

The prevalence of specific language forms to express particular emotions in certain languages has been claimed by Wierzbicka (1992), who argued that to describe emotional states Russian-language speakers use predominantly active verbs of emotions, while in the English language adjectives and adjectival participles or “pseudo-participles” of emotions (p.401) are used. The researcher claimed that for English speakers it is more common and preferential to say “She is worried” and “She is pleased,” while the Russian speakers would prefer to say “She worries” or “She rejoices.”

This finding was supported and confirmed by Pavlenko (2002b) and Dewaele & Pavlenko (2002), who compared the emotional vocabulary in the samples from monolingual Russian and English speakers and extended the same approaches and claims to the interlanguage of the ARSUEs. The suggested correlation between emotions and the form of their verbal expression or implementation is culture-sensitive since a certain predominance of grammar structures in emotionally colored utterances might reflect culture, certain cultural values, and even “national psyche,” (Wierzbicka, 1992, p.400) which represent the components of cultural scripts.

The study of such semantic and grammatical manifestations of emotional expressions, mainly the emotional state vocabulary in the target language of the ARSUEs, is the primary concern and goal of the following work. In what follows, I investigate how the ARSUEs express emotions in their target language and comprehend particular English emotional state expressions. I want to discover what grammatical forms these speakers predominantly use to express emotions in order to find a possible correlation between the preference in language forms, their usage, and comprehension.

The objective of the study is to give recommendations for ESL pedagogy and make a contribution to further research on the usage of emotion vocabulary in the target language.

More specifically, I examine whether the above claims and processes can be confirmed by a study that includes native Russian speakers in order to see if a preponderance of certain grammatical forms is reflected in the oral samples of ARSUEs, i.e. if their target language preserves the same preference of active emotion verbs and smaller numbers of adjectival participles. However, my study does not duplicate any of the previous research experiments completely since it has several different approaches concerning comprehension of the emotional state vocabulary and the analysis of the samples by the participants in their native language in order to discover whether they understand the semantics of the grammatical forms under consideration and whether, consequently, the choice of certain grammatical forms in their usage is conscious. In addition, unlike previous researchers, I concentrate on the oral narratives to the suggested cues in the target language and analyze the usage and comprehension of present and past adjectival participles in the narratives of ARSUEs. Most important, the outcome of the study is applied to ESL pedagogy in the form of suggested approaches and activities.

The primary research questions of the study are:

How frequently do ARSUEs use and to what extent comprehend adjectival participles as emotion words? Is there any correlation between the frequency/ infrequency of the usage of adjectival participles as emotion words and comprehension of such forms?

Other research questions of the study include, but are not limited to the following:

- What emotion words and words of emotional state do ARSUEs use in their oral first person narratives in English?
- What is the level of ARSUEs' comprehension of emotive vocabulary and emotional state words?

In the following chapters, I hypothesize that ARSUEs use adjectival participles as emotion words quite infrequently. Second, the participants in the study predominantly use active verbs, abstract nouns, and regular adjectives as emotion words. Finally, there is a certain correlation between the level of comprehension and usage of adjectival participles by ARSUEs.

In some cultures emotionality, ability to experience and display emotions, plays a much bigger role in communication and self-expression and is represented much more vividly than in others (Werth, 1999). As my own experience as a Russian émigré shows, and as it is demonstrated by numerous studies (Lapin, 2002; Lebedeva, 2000; Zorin, 2004; Yasin, 2003), Russian native speakers rank emotionality higher and treat it more favorably than other cultures. Wierzbicka emphasizes “the centrality of emotions in Russian culture” (1999, p.218). Having lived in the American culture also gives me a better understanding of different connotations of the word “emotional” itself for Russian-speakers and native speakers of modern Standard American English. “Being emotional” in a conventional setting has a definite negative connotation and means “to cry”. According to Wierzbicka (p.218), in Russian, on the other hand, “being emotional” means “to be expressive”, “emotionally alive”, and is praised and noted as positive. On the whole, the Russian language has a bigger linguistic arsenal for expressing emotions;

and it is much more acceptable for Russian speakers “to wear their emotions on their sleeves.” From my personal experience, I have noticed that there is a certain correlation between the Russian cultural value of being open and straightforward and emotionality.

From my own experience as an ESL educator and nonnative speaker of English, I also know that when a person comes to live in a new culture, he/she brings his/her set of cultural norms and values together with his /her native language. I believe that when Russian-speaking adults move to the United States, the difference in their own and native speakers’ emotionality represents a sufficient part of their culture shock.

In general, it has been noted by some researchers (Stepanova & Coley, 2002; Wierzbicka, 1998) that Americans are stereotypically viewed by Russian native speakers as less emotional, far more detached and even superficially concealing emotions. I believe that the way Americans express or conceal emotions is no less culturally shocking for a newly-arrived Russian-speaking immigrant than a funeral service or a visitation where all of the attendees are laughing while remembering the deceased: “a celebration of life” concept is alien for Russians, for whom a funeral is a venue for expressing grief and despair openly and emotionally. One might argue that such difference may be rooted in the contrasting moral, ethical, and religious values, e.g. Americans’ deeper belief in afterlife and possibility to meet with the loved one. It is worth noting that linguistically the word “visitation” itself has a different connotation for a Russian speaker since in Russian the root of the word has a very definitive meaning. As Larson (1984) states, “a *visit*” in Russian means “an official visit”. Here the concept of

“false friends” (when words seem similar or close outwardly, phonetically, but mean different things in different languages) can be applied (Larson, 1984, p. 183).

Another confusing language example of the “false friends” concept can be the English word “babushka,” which is borrowed from Russian and used in Standard American English (SAE) in a completely different meaning: instead of meaning “an old woman, a grandmother” this English word stands for “a scarf worn in a certain manner.” Emotions in the new culture are similar to the linguistic “false friends”: they seem to be similar but in reality signify a plethora of cultural differences.

When these “babushkas” (in the Russian meaning of the word) and other Russian-speaking adults without previous exposure to SAE come to live in the USA, they feel lost, not only because they do not have adequate language proficiency, but also due to the fact that they can not express their emotions adequately, or their emotions are not interpreted correctly, or they are not sure if they can interpret the emotions of their American interlocutors. Frequently, this unpleasant discovery of the difference in the level of emotionality and its expression unfortunately converts into far-reaching unfavorable generalizations on Americans’ emotionality, which taint further communication with native speakers of English. It is interesting to note that some American psychologists and linguists (Mondry & Taylor, 1998) also find Russian speakers “warmer.” I believe that as a result of such an unpleasant discovery of the emotionality difference, some adult Russian learners of English may hide into their shells and lose motivation to study English and acculturate.

The way emotions are expressed in the target language has been studied by several researchers (Dewaele & Pavlenko, 2002; Stepanova & Coley, 2002); however, numerous aspects of the topic have not been tackled. Dewaele & Pavlenko (2002) suggest that the emphasis of further studies should be placed on comprehension rather than usage. Such a suggestion is logical since this emphasis can connect the comprehensible input and output: i.e. the level of comprehension may impact the level of production.

Following the suggestion of the previous researchers and having found my own niche in the emotive vocabulary research, I write about how ARSUEs express their emotions in the target language and native language and how they comprehend vocabulary of emotional states (adjectival participles). I want to find out what grammatical forms the participants predominantly use in their target language and whether they realize/notice grammatical and semantic difference between present and past adjectival participles. The objective of the study is to discover if there is a difference in grammatical expression of emotionality in the narrative samples and if it may affect the usage and the comprehension of emotion vocabulary in the target language in order to make implications for adult ESL teaching and further research.

The benefactors of the following qualitative study with elements of quasi-experimental quantitative research include participating ARSUEs, ESL teachers, and linguists who are interested in study of cross-cultural cognition, discursive linguistics, and bilingualism. The first group will have a chance to be engaged in a meta-cognitive activity during the study and after the research procedures since a detailed explanation of the specific features of the target and native languages is provided by the researcher to

each participant individually in a private setting. The subjects of the study participate in a discussion of the formal knowledge of certain grammar aspects and their realization.

Second, the vast population of adult English learners in general benefits by this study indirectly because ESL educators become more knowledgeable about the methods of teaching emotion words. Furthermore, this study is aimed at improving intercultural communication, alleviating miscommunication, and influencing the process of acculturation.

Third, through this study ESL teachers may gain a certain insight into their students' psyche and language learning processes and acquire some understanding of the usage of certain methods of teaching emotional states and emotive vocabulary.

Most important, this study contributes to further research on emotions and bilingualism. It is based on previous research in the area and fills in the niche that was designated by Dewaele & Pavlenko, who stated that "Future inquiries also need to look at comprehension and, in particular, at the identification and categorization of emotions by IL speakers in cases where cultural scripts differ between the communities in question" (2002, p.25).

In Chapter Two, Literature Review, I give a detailed description and analysis of previous research in the area of language and emotions, including a specific discussion of discursive linguistics, cognitive and structural grammar findings on emotional state words. Then, in Chapter Three, Methods, I indicate methods used in the research study and provide a description of the procedure and analysis of data collection. Chapter Four, Results, gives an account of the study findings. Finally, Chapter Five, Conclusion,

provides and analyzes conclusions that pertain to the research study, implications for ESL pedagogy and further research along with limitations of the study and recommendations for advanced research.

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

Emotions and the ways they are expressed play a pivotal role in people's perception of the world and their acceptance by other people. It is acknowledged by a number of researchers and scholars (Athanasidou & Tabakowaka, 1998; Goddard, 1998; Matsumoto, Franklin, Choi, Rogers, & Tatani, 2002; Niemeier & Dirven, 1997; Wierzbicka, 1992, 1997, 1999) that emotions are culturally sensitive. The manifestation of cultural differences through emotional expressions has been the object of numerous research studies and fundamental works in multiple fields of study, including cross-cultural psychology (Adler & Gielen, 2001), cross-cultural communication (Matsumoto, Franklin, Choi, Roger, & Tatani, 2002), and cognitive linguistics (Altarriba & Morrier, 2004; Wierzbicka, 1992, 1999).

What follows is my contribution to the investigation of the differences in the verbal expressions of emotions across cultures and the interrelation between such expressions and comprehension of others' emotional expressions. My concern with this topic is rooted in my connection with Russian culture and my interest in the reflection of cultural values in emotional language and in the changes (either maintenance or convergence) in the traditional Russian cultural values when ARSUEs acquire a dominant language under the influence of a new culture. More specifically, I am interested in investigating the correlation between the target group's comprehension of emotional states expressions in English and their usage of such expressions. My research

philosophy and approach have been mainly formed by the works in discursive linguistics (Dewaele & Pavlenko, 2002; Pavlenko, 2002a, 2002b), cognitive linguistics (Wierzbicka, 1992, 1997, 1999), semiotic psychology (Markel, 1998), and cognitive grammar (Bresnan, 1982; Levin & Rappaport, 1986).

First, in order to preview the current study aiming at the investigation of how adult Russian-speaking users and learners of English express their emotions verbally in their native and target languages and how accurately they comprehend some ways emotions are expressed in English in American culture by the native speakers of English, I start by providing an outline of the theoretical background in the major areas of study, including psychological, philosophical, and anthropological aspects of emotions and their verbal expressions. Second, linguistic manifestations of emotions are discussed in a more detailed way (with emotion and emotional states vocabulary, language of emotions through cultures, emotions and cultural values, and usage of emotion vocabulary in interlanguage and bilingualism being the main subtopics). The reference to the above mentioned areas of research and thought helps to provide a holistic picture of the research topic and connect the current study with previous related investigations. The definitions of the basic terms are intended for the potential audience of English as a second language educators and psychologists, mainly interested in the area of cross-cultural psychology. Most importantly, the overview of semantic representations of the parts of speech that express emotional states is included in this discussion in order to provide a specific grammatical perspective of the research. Finally, I conclude this chapter by outlining the

areas of research that need further investigation, presenting the goals and objectives of my research study in the light of such need.

Defining Emotionality

After decades of research, scholars have not yet agreed on one universally accepted or otherwise comprehensive definition of emotion yet, and it is most unlikely that there will be one such definition, which is another indication of a manifold nature of emotions and variety of their interpretations. Emotion can be defined as “a distinctive type of mental state, sometimes accompanied or followed by bodily changes, expressions, actions” (Oatley & Jenkins, 1996, p.96). This definition emphasizes a non-verbal side of an emotional state that has been thoroughly and successfully studied from various angles, including cultural difference in bodily movements , and the involvement of bodily parts in emotional expressions (Pavlenko , 2002; Wierzbicka, 1998), and intentionality/non-intentionality of emotions (Gibbs & Orden, 2003; Hatzimoysis, 2003) when emotions are displayed purposefully or not . Some psychologists (Davitz, 1969) have elicited definitions of certain emotions and emotional states from their subjects in multiple choice surveys and tests through quantitative studies.

However, the study described here is concerned with primarily verbal realizations of emotional states. Thus, the definition of emotions as “phenomena that can be seen in social interaction, much of which is verbal“ (Abu-Lungold & Lutz, 1990, p. 4) seems to be more appropriate in the context of the following study. This concept invites scholars to

study emotions as discourse in order to find out how speech gives grounds to and provides means for the social expression and meaning of emotions (Abu-Lungold & Lutz, 1990).

Rosaldo (1984) also specifies the components of discourse when defining emotions as phenomena presenting semi-physical responses, which reflect an individual's personality, his/her moral and ideological (cultural) attitudes. He points out a dual sensitive and cognitive nature of emotions and signifies emotion's unique function in connecting a personality with a social environment and events. This definition connects cognition, community, and personality, which is especially important for the purposes of this study since the main goal of the research is to analyze some processes leading to socio-cultural competence. However, the verbal expression of emotions has not been reflected in this definition.

On the other hand, emotions themselves can be treated as ways of communication. Consequently, one of their main functions is considered to be communicative (Oatley & Johnson-Laid, 1987). In this case, the modes of communication are not mentioned, but they can be presupposed. Numerous scholars (Athanasiadou & Tabakowaka, 1998; Bamberg, 1997; Matsumoto, Franklin, Choi, Rogers, & Tatani, 2002; Niemieier & Dirven, 1997) claim that such "communication" (i.e. emotionality, or emotional expressiveness and ways people react to others' emotional expressions) differs through cultures and reflects cultural values and preferences.

Language of Emotions and Emotion Vocabulary

Psycholinguistic research suggests that emotion words differ from other abstract words in a number of parameters and characteristics and should be treated as a separate group of words, distinct from both concrete and abstract words (Altarriba, Bauer, & Benvenuto, 1999). In the English language emotion vocabulary consists of abstract nouns denoting concepts (*anger*), some verbs (*enjoy*), some adverbs (*beautifully*), adjectives (*beautiful*), interjections (*Oh*), and adjectival participles denoting emotional states (*stressed, satisfying*). The definition of an adjectival participle invites a considerable discussion due to the various interpretations of the term and a number of other terms for the same linguistic phenomenon such as *participial adjectives, adjectives, or participles*. Due to the thematic constraints of the current study, I have not included the detailed overview of the discussion that mainly involves experts in cognitive grammar (Bresnan, 1982; Levin & Rappaport, 1996). However, adjectival participles represent themselves as a category of specific interest for the current study and will be treated and defined later in the chapter in a separate subtopic.

Generally speaking, any word category or any separate word or expression can become emotive in communication depending on the speaker's and the interlocutor's perception of the word and situation it was used in or connected with in real life, memory, or literature/ arts. For example, for the couple whose first date happened to be in the rain, the noun "rain" may become an emotion word. The same emotive meaning of this word can come from literature: for example the rain at the end of *A Farewell to Arms*

(Hemingway, 1957) is a metaphor signifying grief and unshed tears. The simple geographical name “Iraq” has become a part of emotion vocabulary for thousands of Americans because it causes emotions due to the people’s reaction to the war. Although sometime later this word may lose its emotionality and impact for the majority of people depending on the outcome of the war, for the people whose lives were closely connected with the war, this word will never cease to be a source of deep emotions.

On the other hand, the word “communism” is emotive for Russian speakers in their fifties and up, less emotive for younger Russians, and even less emotive for younger Americans. The above examples demonstrate that a word’s level of emotionality is relative and is impacted by culture, time frame, age of the speaker, and context. Among other variables that affect the level of emotionality of the word, gender and personality type/ traits of the speakers and the illocutionary reaction need to be mentioned.

Consequently, when using the term “emotion vocabulary”, certain parameters are presupposed, accepted, and used (Cowie, Douglas-Cowie, Apolloni, Taylor, Romano, & Fellenz, 1999). Ekman (1993) and Izard (1992) claim that the finite set of universal basic human emotions can be described by a finite number of English words. The scholars, who adhere to this universalistic approach, have viewed emotions and language as two separate, concurrent systems, which can reflect one another (Bamberg, 1997).

The language of emotions has also been studied from the point of view of not so commonly known semiotic psychology, which is defined as “the scientific study of speech as an index of emotions and attitudes”(Markel, 1998, p.15). This approach is also based on Jacobson’s schema of the emotive function of language (Jacobson, 1960).

Semiotic psychology studies speech behavior in the context of psychology and uses emotions, attitudes, and various language phenomena as variables. One of the principal concepts of this approach, an adjective-verb quotient, seems to be applicable to the current study and will be discussed further in subsequent chapters in more detail.

In this age of technology, the definitions of the basic emotion vocabulary and emotional states terms also come from computer science studies that are aimed at designing emotion recognition system. In one such study (Cowie, Douglas-Cowie, Apolloni, Taylor, Romano, & Fellenz, 1999), thirty-six native English-speaking participants initially cross-selected forty vocabulary words that were later identified as Basic English Emotion Vocabulary. In the second phase of the study the identified words were divided by the participants into four semantic groups with the extreme axes ranging from *very active* to *very passive* and *very positive* to *very negative*. Due to its valid selection process, which included both random and controlled parameters, the adjectival present and past participles from the above mentioned Basic English Emotion Vocabulary scope were to be offered to the participants of the current study for the task of comprehension, recognition, and identification of the level of emotionality. For the complete list of the forty Basic English Emotion Vocabulary words and the graphic representation of the terms' meaning please see Appendices A and B of the current study.

Another approach to the dichotomy of emotions and language grants language a more active role in constructing and reconstructing emotions (Kitayama & Marcus, 1994; Marcus & Kitayama, 1991) and views emotion vocabulary as a reflection of socio-cultural meanings more specific to particular languages. In this light, it is of importance

to provide a more detailed analysis of a particular part of emotion vocabulary, emotional states words, since their usage is claimed to be particularly culturally-sensitive and distinctive for English-language speakers. Some emotion state words (such as adjectival participles) are seldom used by Russian-language speakers who predominantly use active verbs, which reflects their national character script, suggesting that certain ways of emotional reaction are common for Russian speakers (Wierzbicka, 1992; Dewaele & Pavlenko, 2002). The usage of active verbs rather than adjectives or adjectival participles to express emotions is explained in the above works as an indication of the more direct and active attitude of the Russian speakers.

Emotional States Vocabulary and Adjectival Participles

Adjectival participles or “pseudo-participles” (Wierzbicka, 1992) deserve a special overview and discussion in this chapter since:

1. their more extensive, predominant usage as emotion words by native speakers of English is one of the linguistic features that significantly distinguish the way native speakers of English and ARSUEs express emotions and specifically describe emotional states (Wierzbicka, 1992);
2. the level of comprehension of both active and passive forms of adjectival participles as emotion words by the ARSUEs is one of the concerns of the empirical study that follows;
3. the semantic difference between present and past participles frequently leads to their misuse, which is addressed later in the study under the implications for ESL pedagogy.

According to Wierzbicka (1992), the main argument for the ARUSEs' preference to describe emotional states with verbs rather than adjectival participles or 'pseudo-participles' (as native English speakers do) lies in the differences between the groups' language structures, culture scripts, and national characters. For example, the statistical study of word frequency per one million words of the English word *sadness* showed no corresponding verbs, while its close Russian synonyms *pechal'*, *grust'*, *toska* yielded six, six, and sixteen corresponding verbs (Kucera & Francis, 1969).

While in the English language adjectival participles either do not have a corresponding verb form with the same meaning, or the speakers prefer to use the participial form, in Russian there is a developed class of reflexive verbs such as *radovat'sya* "to rejoice," "to be joyful"; *serdit'sya*, "to be angry," "to rage,"; *stydit'sya*, "to be ashamed" (Wierzbicka, 1992). In other cases some intransitive English emotion verbs do exist in a very limited number (e.g. "to rejoice," "to grieve," "to worry," "to pine"), but they are either not used at all, or are used ironically. According to Wierzbicka, this is not accidental that active emotion verbs are disappearing from the modern English language, since passive linguistic forms, such as past participles, are encouraged and supported by the Anglo culture (1992, p.402). Cultural anthropologists (Lutz, 1990) and linguists (Rintel, 1984) explain it by the preference of indirect emotional expressions, which are manifested by passive adjectival constructions. To support this argument, the authors note frequency of an active form of the verb "to sadden" versus its passive form "to be saddened." Moreover, the active form of the

English emotive verb is used only transitively, e.g. “*It/she saddens me.*” An active intransitive form of this emotive verb “*I sadden* “ is ungrammatical.

There are explicit aspectual differences in the verbal and participial constructions in English: the participle bears the meaning of passivity toward the subject. While used as a verb, this form requires a subject-object switch in the sentence. In addition, in most cases, the verb should be transitive. Only a few English intransitive verbs such as *to rejoice* can be used in this function, e.g. “*The family rejoiced when they heard good news.*”

The past adjectival participle denotes an action that was performed on the head noun. Bresnan (1982) refers to such meaning as a “resultant state after an event or activity”: *stressed, outraged, or saddened*. Such meaning is expressed by the word order and by the ending *-ed/-en* of the past adjectival participle.

According to Laczko, the *-ing* ending of a present adjectival participle may also denote a state in an extended sense. Laczko claims that “participles are as dynamic as their input verbs” and interprets the expression *a smiling woman* as “a woman in a smiling state” (2001, p.10).

The next step in the analysis of the adjectival participles is the overview of the semantic approach to the meaning of the verb (an input, a base verb) that forms a participial entity. Miller and Fellbaum (1991) divided verbs into the following fourteen semantically distinguished groups: verbs of *bodily care and functions, change, cognition, communication, competition, consumption, contact, creation, emotion, motion, perception, possession, social interaction, and weather*. Of interest for this study is the

group of the *verbs of emotion*. Other linguists define this group of verbs as *verbs of psychological state* and *verbs of desire* (Levin, 1993) and divide them into subclasses (Werth, 1998).

The major conceptual categories of the adjectival participles were defined as EVENT and STATE (Bresnan, 1996), which corresponds to the aspectual differences between event-describing present participle and state-describing past participle. Elbaum (1996) states that present adjectival participles denote that the head noun actively causes some emotions (*interesting game*), while past adjectival participles denote that the head noun receives the emotion (*interested children*). Only animate nouns can be described by past adjectival participles denoting emotions (*excited actress*), while present adjectival participles may describe both animate and inanimate noun heads (*exciting actress*, *exciting news*). In short, in the analysis of adjectival participles as emotional state descriptors, it is essential to pay attention to the semantics of the three prior described components: the input verb, the ending, and the head noun. In the subsequent chapters, suggestions for the second language teaching of these verbal forms will be made.

Emotionality Intensity and Properties of English Verbs

Another study (Dewaele & Edwards, 2003) on the perception of emotional intensity of verb forms analyzes similar properties in various verb forms. The analysis of this study is of particular interest for the current study since two tasks offered to these study participants and control group members were similar in design and goals.

The authors investigated how second language users perceived emotional intensity associated with verb semantics, pragmatics, tense, and aspect. The study

included thirty-three second language users, who spoke fourteen different languages, and twenty English native speakers, residents of the United Kingdom. The perception of the emotional intensity by the participants and control group of English native speakers was researched through a written questionnaire, which contained thirty-six utterances. The utterances included various verb forms which varied in structural complexity and markers of aspect and tense properties. Both participants and control group members that consisted of native speakers of English, were asked to identify emotional intensity of thirty-six sentences containing fourteen different verbs. A five-point Likert scale was used for the evaluation of emotional intensity ranging from *neutral* to *very strongly emotional*. A three-way analysis of the data (ANOVA) displayed that there was no significant interaction between tense and aspect, tense and verb, and aspect and verb. Nineteen progressive forms scored slightly higher than seventeen non-progressive forms, and twenty-seven present tense sentences were marked slightly higher than nine sentences in the past tense. The only significant effect was revealed through the analysis of the meaning of the verb. However, the researchers concluded that a verb aspect, tense, or context may slightly affect the emotionality level of a verb. Summing up the study, the researchers claimed that various properties of a verb might have independent influence on the emotional intensity, which might be also affected by context. In general, advanced learners of English came to the realization that progressive verb forms present higher emotionality levels. Intensity of contacts with native speakers rather than length of stay in a new cultural environment seemed to produce more pronounced effect on the similarity of emotionality perception.

While certain semantic, pragmatic, and grammatical properties may affect the intensity of emotionality attributed to English verb forms, the choice and the preference of certain vocabulary and language forms over the others are claimed to be governed by more general attitudes toward emotions across cultures (Wierzbicka, 1992, 1999; Werth, 1998). The language structures arguably reflect certain patterns of behavior and even cultural values accepted in a language community.

Emotionality and Language of Emotions across Cultures

For several decades, numerous works by a cognitive linguist Wierzbicka (1992, 1997, 1999, and 2003) have developed a distinctive systematic approach to the analysis of emotions across cultures applying the concepts of universal semantics. Wierzbicka views emotions as semantic concepts that are to be investigated in a semantic metalanguage in terms of semantic universals of conceptual nature that comprise a limited number of key words, or elements such as *good*, *bad*, *think*, *know*, *feel*, *want*, and others (1992). Wierzbicka and a group of other cognitive linguists (Athanasiadou & Tabakowaka, 1998; Goddard, 1998; Werth, 1998) have applied the concepts of universal semantics to various languages. The main incentive for applying a universal semantic approach to emotionality through cultures was the desire to avoid the ethnocentrism of the previous studies that accepted the English-based cultural notions that were viewed by cognitive linguists as alien and superficial to other cultures. According to Wierzbicka (1995), each language has its own ways to describe human emotions and life events.

More than that, every language affects any human experience it describes. Consequently, such English words as *anger* or *sadness* belong to the English language and can not be used to describe emotions characteristic of other cultures. When analyzing emotions from the standpoint of semantics, Wierzbicka applied the concept of a prototypical scenario (i.e. the expected script of behavior) to excerpts from literature (Goddard, 1998).

Another postulate of this scholar deals with the claim that a script of a national character and emotionality level can be expressed through a set of key words that are culture-specific and are not translatable to other languages (Wierzbicka, 1997). For example, for the Russian native speakers those key words include such notions as *dusha* (*soul*) and *toska* (*grief*). In short, Wierzbicka's semantic study of emotional expressions across cultures influenced numerous scholars, who developed her ideas (Pavlenko, 2002a, 2002b) and caused some criticism of others (Mondry & Taylor, 1998) due to her predominant usage of literature instead of direct research of language in discourse. However, in her latest work on emotions and pragmatics (Wierzbicka, 2003), the scholar pays a lot of attention to the expressions of emotions in speech acts and in the various modules and scripts of communication across cultures.

Although another approach to the manifestation of emotions in language, the so-called "emotionology" (Bamberg, 1998; Harre & Gillet, 1994), is similar to that of Wierzbicka's in the treatment of emotion vocabulary, it also includes an illocutionary presence and perception and the analysis of the emotion words as functioning in speech acts. Moreover, the emphasis of this approach is on how emotions are displayed in a

group, the usage of emotive language in discourse situations, which also displays people's attitudes to one another, and/or their moral and cultural values.

Emotions and Cultural Values

According to evolutionists, the development of human emotionality happens at the same time as the development of the brain, which is followed by the development of cultural values. Both developmental steps are credited to communication (Vasiliev, 2004). Vasiliev describes four functions of any developed language in a society "as development of human mind and emotionality, accumulation of knowledge and values, creation of works of art and science, and transmission of knowledge, cultural values and identity through generations". It is interesting to note that a language is represented as a tool and as a product of development at the same time.

The interrelations among communication/ speech, emotions, and values are also described by semiotic psychology. Semiotic psychologists claim that discourse and speech acts serve as a means for identifying the expressions of values, since values represent clusters of attitudes and emotions and concludes that "Identification of particular attitudes and emotions provides a basis for identifying values" (Markel, 1998, p.160). In short, communication, emotions, and cultural values influence each other: cultural values regulate the level of a cultural group's emotionality, which is expressed through communication (Adler & Gielen, 2001).

Cross-cultural psychologist Hofstede (1980, 1983) introduced a dimensional approach to culture with the following main dimensions: Power Distance (PD), Uncertainty Avoidance (UA), Individualism (IN), and Masculinity (MA). Having used

the dimensions of culture that could differentiate cultural groups (Individualism vs. Collectivism among them), Matsumoto (1991) presented the framework for the identification and prediction of the influence of certain cultures on emotional process. One of the main outcomes of Matsumoto's study was a conclusion and a prediction that in contrast to individualistic cultures, collective cultures encourage their members to display emotions more freely and openly in order to achieve better group functioning and better chemistry within a group. This conclusion completely coincides with Wierzbicka's (1992) perceiving emotionality as an important cultural value for Russians (collectivists) and as having no cultural value for Americans (individualists) as a trait of national character script. The concept of emotionality as a cultural value for Russian speakers has also been presented by Wierzbicka (1992) and to a significant degree has been based on the usage of more active and expressive language forms mostly in literature and media. I believe that through history, the basis for the acceptance of emotionality as a cultural value lies in the praise of directness and simplicity as indications of sincerity (Zorin, 2004).

Present-day studies by Russian scholars (Lebedeva, 2000; Yasin, 2003) confirm this notion by claiming emotionality as a traditional Russian value along with offbeat thinking and originality. However, in the modern transitional Russian society this value does not survive under the pressure of the development of newly-born capitalism. According to a survey of younger generations in today's Russia (Lapin, 2002), emotionality is no longer considered a value because with the turn toward a more rationalistic society, Russians acquire more Anglo-American (Western) values. The same

switch in cultural values was identified in the studies of the language samples of the so-called “new Russians” (Modry & Taylor, 1998).

It is common knowledge that in North American society public display of some emotions is not always accepted and may be considered inappropriate. Even the words *emotional* and *emotionality* themselves sound more negative than approving in the United States and are normally used when describing somebody giving himself/herself into feelings and being unable to hide them (Wierzbicka, 2003). Anthropologists trace this attitude to the expression of emotions to the traditional societies, where emotionality was considered inappropriate for the nobles and was looked upon as a weakness forgivable for the lower, powerless classes (Abu-Lughod & Lutz, 1990; Irvine, 1990). Thus, the previous examples have demonstrated the connections among cultural values, emotionally, ideology, and time and indicated that the interrelation between emotionality and cultural values is not permanent: it is prone to shifts under the influence of societal and global changes. For example, these days it is becoming quite acceptable and even normal for an Oscar winner to express extreme emotions extremely publicly.

The differences in cultural values regarding emotions, ideology, and politics of communication shed light on emotion discourse in particular languages. The discussion of emotion discourse in Russian and English is presented in the next part of this chapter. This discussion of emphasis on emotionality is especially significant for the contingent of the study participants, who represent somewhat older generation of Russian-speaking immigrants that tends to be loyal to their cultural values, associated with their native language.

Emotion Discourse in Russian and English

Previous research (Pavlenko, 2002, Ries, 1997, Wierzbicka, 1992, 1998, 1999) has shown that in the two languages in question emotions in discourse are constructed with significant difference. In comparison to the English language, the Russian language has a more developed system of linguistic devices that are employed in the construction of discursive emotions. “The tremendous stress on emotions and on their free expression, the high emotional temperature of Russian discourse, the wealth of linguistic devices for signaling emotions and shades of emotions” are, according to Wierzbicka (1992, p.395), the distinguishing features and characteristics of the Russian emotion discourse. Wierzbicka characterizes Russian emotion discourse as being intense and placing significant emphasis on emotions, their free expressions, and variety of linguistic devices to render numerous stages and shades of emotions (1992).

In addition, the two speech communities in question tend to conceptualize emotions differently. For example, emotions described as *joy*, *sadness*, or *anger* are often viewed and conceptualized by Russians as inner activities, which presupposes a more voluntarily involvement of the speaker and, consequently, more active and frequent usage of active verbs. On the contrary, in the English language emotions are conceptualized as passive states that are caused by external or passive causes, which explains why emotions are more commonly expressed by means of adjectives or pseudo-participles (Wierzbicka, 1992). In the current study the term *adjectival participles* is used

in lieu of Wierzbicka's *pseudo-participles*. A more detailed discussion of the verbal or adjectival preferences and differences has been presented earlier in this chapter.

Another striking difference in the emotion discourse of the two language communities lies in the degree of directness and openness of emotional expressions. With '*directness*' being a relative and quite subjective category, it is still possible to draw some conclusions based on multiple studies and observations. For example, Americans can be viewed as direct when compared with Japanese and indirect when compared with Russians. Many researchers have also observed and described emotion discourse in the Russian community as "warm" and "heartfelt", which is significantly different from "friendly" and "more detached" as applied to Anglo culture (Wierzbicka, 2003).

In addition to linguistic differences between the two groups in the ways emotions are expressed, much attention has been paid to the reflection of the bodily reactions and manifestations of the emotions in the Russian language (Pavlenko, 2002; Wierzbicka, 1998, 1999). Having provided the comparison of Russian emotional expressions involving body parts (Iordanskaya & Paperno, 1995) and their close translations into English, both researchers (Pavlenko, 2002; Wierzbicka, 1998, 1999) came to the conclusion that in Russian, such expressions are much more prevalent and dramatic; they involve more body parts; and some emotions cannot be adequately translated. It is interesting to note that according to the cited research findings, in the Russian language, the prevalence of body parts in description of emotions (facial expression, body language, gestures) and idioms including body parts that are related to emotional states reflects the external nature of emotional expressiveness. In contrast, English native speakers are

characterized as describing and experiencing emotions more internally both verbally and in their body languages. I believe that the lack of any word in the Russian language adequately rendering the idea of “privacy” or “being private” also relates to the difference between internal and external expressions of emotions.

Finally, the difference between the two discourses of emotions lies in the ideologies of emotions encoded in both cultures. For Russians, emotional activities are considered a major part of a human inner life (Lapin, 2002; Zorin, 2004). This concept explains why poetry plays such an important role for the Russian psyche and is so widely read and revered. While mainstream American culture values control and composure, the very idea of emotionless composure is alien to mainstream Russian traditional culture. From my own experience I know that when Russians make efforts to control or hide their feelings, they may experience dissatisfaction because they are not true to themselves.

In sum, the above discussion has mainly concerned the usage of emotion words, general level of emotionality, and attitude to emotional expressions by monolingual speakers of English and Russian. However, the main focus of this study is on the usage of emotion vocabulary by the learners of English in their interlanguage, or learners’ *developing* second language knowledge (Selinker, 1972) and by bilingual Russian users of English. In this study a practical definition of bilingualism or bilingual usage as “the practice of alternately using two languages” (Weinreich, 1979, p.1) is accepted.

In the last two decades, several studies have been conducted to answer the questions related to the emotion vocabulary in interlanguage and bilingualism (Grabois, 1999; Graham, Hamblin, and Feldstein, 2001; Rintell, 1984). In what follows, I will

outline the main outcome of some of the research studies that are of relevance for the current research and analyze the variables and paradigms that are of significance for the current study, such as socio-cultural competence, level of language proficiency, exposure to the language, and the topic. This survey of the related research will lead to the identification of the need for the current study and specific goals of the research.

Emotion Vocabulary in Interlanguage and Bilingualism

Not only does the analysis of the registered differences in emotional expressions of socio-cultural and cross-linguistic characteristics allow us to investigate the acquisition and usage of emotion vocabulary and emotive concepts, but it can also provide researchers in second language acquisition and bilingualism with the chance to examine connections between language, emotions, and cognition (Dewaele & Pavlenko, 2002). Although many researchers emphasize the significance of the studies aimed at the various aspects of emotion vocabulary in the second language, this area of research has not been well developed, and many questions about the acquisition and second language usage of emotion vocabulary are unanswered (Kellerman, 2001).

However, most recently, scholars Dewaele & Pavlenko made a collective effort to draw attention to the studies of emotional expressions in bilingualism through the compilation of the special July issue of *The International Journal of Bilingualism* (2003). They also created special website projects and questionnaires on the perceptions of bilinguals of the relationship between their languages and emotions

(www.bbk.ac.uk//llc/biling+emotions/index.html). Studies on emotion vocabulary are closely connected with the investigation of socio-cultural competence.

Studies on Emotion Vocabulary and Socio-cultural Competence

In one of the first and defining studies on the level on socio-cultural competence, Rintell (1984) examined comprehension and production of an emotion message as an illocutionary act in the speech of second language learners and users. One hundred and twenty-seven students, enrollees in the Intensive English Program at the University of Houston, were asked to identify emotions in the eleven taped conversations that were played to them. The participants were instructed to react/respond to a variety of cues in the taped dialogues including the situation (context, pragmatics), vocabulary (lexical semantics), and intonation (phonology). The emotions were labeled as *pleasure, anger, depression, anxiety, guilt, or disgust*. The intensity of emotions was also rated by the participants in the study on a Likert (five-degree) scale. The responses of the English language learners were compared to the answers of nineteen native speakers of English, which displayed a high level of agreement within the group. According to the statistical analysis of the data, the variables of gender and age were of no effect on the performance of the respondents. In contrast, the cultural and linguistic background, and proficiency in English (beginners $M=3.97$; intermediate group = 5.99, and advanced group=6.95) played a significant role in the performance of the participants in the study. Despite such disparity of scores, even the most advanced students were able to provide correct answers (identify the emotions displayed in the conversations) no more than two-thirds of the time. In terms of cultural background, the scores of Chinese students were consistently

and significantly lower than those of Spanish-speaking and Arabic-speaking respondents. Both English native speakers and English language learners had a harder time identifying *depression, anxiety, guilt, and anger*. In contrast, both groups performed better recognizing *pleasure and disgust*.

Similar results were reported (Graham, Hamblin, & Feldstein, 2001) when thirty-eight Spanish and fifty-four Japanese speakers, students of English as a second language program, were asked to identify emotions in eight audio recordings. In that study the control group was much bigger (it consisted of eighty-five native speakers), and it also displayed a consistent correct rate of 58.6%. The Spanish-speaking respondents identified emotions correctly in 41.7% of cases, and the Japanese speakers scored 37.7%. Similarly to Rintell's study, language proficiency did not play a significant role in the students' performance, and Asian students produced consistently low scores. This result was attributed to the linguistic and cultural distance between the speakers and the participants in the study. The researchers concluded that the greater linguistic and cultural distance separated the individuals participating in the study from the speakers portraying the emotions, the higher was the level at which the emotions were confused.

Another study that tested the concept of possible restructuring in the lexical organization of emotion domain (Grabois, 1999) was based on word association tasks. The objective of the study was to investigate how the subjects categorize emotion vocabulary in lexical domains: whether the participants shift their L1 concepts to L2 or whether they accept the concepts of the new acquired language and culture. The word associations for such concepts as *love, fear, and happiness* were elicited from five groups

of speakers: monolingual speakers of Spanish and English, acculturated speakers of Spanish having lived in Spain for at least three years, American learners of Spanish enrolled in a study abroad program, and Spanish as a foreign language students enrolled in a course in an American university. Statistical analysis of the data demonstrated that the answers provided by the monolinguals revealed most striking difference in the types of preferred associations and choice of words. Among the non-native speakers of Spanish, acculturated speakers, the L2 speakers who had lived in their second language culture for an extensive period of time and had integrated, demonstrated a higher correlation in associations with those of the native speakers. In sum, the above studies demonstrated that production and level of performance in the usage of the emotion vocabulary is affected by the level of the speakers' socio-cultural competence, especially if the native and the target language differ significantly in the emotion discourse. Socio-cultural competence was perceived as the knowledge, acceptance, and usage of certain cultural norms of the L2 culture and community. The indication of such a competence was demonstrated by a L2 speaker's successful inclusion in a new culture.

Effect of language proficiency on emotion vocabulary

Another study by Rintell (1990) connects the level of proficiency and the emotion vocabulary production of eight intermediate second language learners of English who were asked to provide personal experience narratives about emotional events. The control group included six native speakers. The comparison between the narratives of the two groups demonstrated that although learners of English were able to provide a direct and

detailed account of events, they failed to use figurative or otherwise any more complex language, which is traditionally associated with language of emotions.

Other researchers (Dewaele & Furnham, 2000; Dewaele & Regan, 2001) also see the lower level of emotion vocabulary performance, usage, and perception as a reflection of associative aspect of lexical competence on the whole, which is manifested in a limited ability to perceive and use connotations, idiomatic expressions, collocations, and stylistic devices, mainly metaphors. Most importantly, the inability to fully express their emotions in English makes the English learners visibly more direct and detached in the second language. The realization of their own “tongue-tiedness” by the second language speakers may make them choose to use their first language when discussing emotional topics to avoid making a self-disclosure and in order to conceal their objective image. This chance to switch to their first language (code-switching) may also contribute to further avoidance of discussing emotional topics in the target language.

Emotion and topic

As discussed earlier with emotion words, the topic itself may elicit a quite different response and various levels of involvement or detachment. The definition of a topic includes the context and the theme of a linguistic exchange (Dewaele & Pavlenko, 2002) and presupposes a different level of emotionality of certain themes and contextual issues for particular groups of learners and individual speakers. For example, for the Russian speakers who belong to the generations born before and ten-fifteen years after World War II, all topics concerning the Great War for the Fatherland (the literal translation of the official Russian name of the war) would be extremely emotionally

charged. In contrast, for Spanish-speaking students or even younger Russian adults such topic would be either less emotional or not emotional at all. However, if the Spanish speakers were originally from Spain, their attitude might be different.

Some researches (Dewaele & Pavlenko, 2002; Clachar, 1999) claim that emotional topics present constraints for second language oral and written production: pauses, false starts, hesitation, or avoidance in the former and a lower level of abstraction in the latter may be caused by the topic that elicits stronger emotional response. Other researchers (Bond & Lai, 1986; Javier & Marcos, 1989) explain code-switching practices to the second and distancing language as an attempt to avoid the usage of the first language for topics that might be too disturbing. In contrast, some researchers (Annoshian and Hertel, 1994) demonstrate that English learners and bilinguals acquire the meaning of emotion words better than neutral ones, especially if they follow the presentation of the same words in the first language.

Another approach to test the impact of emotionality on word recollection power was described by Dewhurst & Parry (2000), who conducted two experiments involving a) lists of mixed emotion and neutral words and b) lists of separated emotion and neutral words. When the mixed lists of words were introduced (50% emotional and 50% neutral words), the participants consistently demonstrated better recognition of emotional words. However, when the emotional and neutral words were presented separately, the neutral words produced a better recall. Although the study involved only native speakers of English, the suggested technique might be of interest for the similar study with bilingual speakers.

In summary, the above studies on socio-cultural competence, language proficiency, and the emotionality of the topic as variables of second language acquisition and performance have provided some background for further research involving a particular cultural group. In what follows, an overview of the studies concerning the ARSUEs will be presented as a separate discussion due to the extreme relevance for the current study and to the similarity of research methods applied in the following experiments under consideration.

Latest studies on the emotion vocabulary and adult Russian learners and users of English

In the last decade, Pavlenko has performed several research experiments (some with co-authors) and has written a number of articles (Dewaele & Pavlenko, 2002; Pavlenko, 2002a; Pavlenko, 2002b; Pavlenko & Jarvis, 2002; Pavlenko, 2003) concerning emotion words in the vocabulary of Russian-English monolinguals, bilinguals, and learners of English. In all of the studies Pavlenko adheres to the works of Wierzbicka and other discursive linguists. An account of Pavlenko's research is of particular importance for the current study since her work provided specific implications for further research, some of which will be used in the following chapters of the current study.

The method and the stimuli applied in the four studies mentioned above were similar: four three-minute long films with a sound track and no dialogue were shown to the participants, who were later asked to provide a recall narrative based on their interpretations of the content of the films. The oral narratives were taped and transcribed, with the data subjected to different treatment and analysis. The variables in the studies

were different levels of language proficiency (from strict monolinguals to late bilinguals), levels of socio-cultural competence, and gender. In two of the studies control groups were used.

The research questions and objectives also varied from the investigation of the connection between the body and emotions in the narratives of Russian monolinguals (2002a), the comparison of the frequency and characterization of emotion words in the narratives of English language learners and English monolinguals (Dewaele & Pavlenko, 2002), the comparison between the ways late bilinguals conceptualize their emotions in their first and second languages (2002b), and the analysis of bidirectional transfers of emotional vocabulary in the narratives of the late bilinguals (Jarvis & Pavlenko, 2002).

The application of the same stimuli and method to different groups of participants has provided the researcher with unique and invaluable material for comparisons across subjects and language conditions. However, such comparison of the results of all of the studies does not coincide with the goals of the current study; rather, I will analyze the two research projects that are the closest to the current study in nature, participants, and objectives (Dewaele & Pavlenko, 2002 and Pavlenko, 2002a), and whose implications have been followed in the current study in more detail. One of the projects (Dewaele & Pavlenko, 2002) consisted of two studies. For the purposes of the current study, only the second experiment, which dealt with the Russian-speaking learners of English, will be discussed.

The objective of the quantitative study by these researchers was to investigate possible connections between socio-cultural and psychological factors (exposure to the

target language, gender, and topic/language material) in the use of emotion vocabulary by learners of English as a second language and Russian-English bilinguals. The thirty-four participants represented two groups: twenty English-language learners enrolled in the advanced upper level English courses in the St. Petersburg University, Russia, aged between eighteen and twenty-six, and fourteen English language users (bilinguals) enrolled in regular graduate and postgraduate classes at Cornell University, aged between sixteen and nineteen. In addition, the data from a concurrent study on Russian and English monolinguals (forty participants in each control group) by the same researcher (Pavlenko, 2002b) were applied in order to provide the corpora for comparison with the results from study on the Russian learners and bilinguals and to include a language background as another variable. The results of the study were inconclusive on the frequency of emotion vocabulary by English and Russian monolinguals, English language learners, and users, which was measured as slightly different. However, the study revealed a significant difference in the richness of the vocabulary of Russian monolinguals with one and a half times more different emotion words and a significant qualitative shift in the emotion vocabulary of Russian-English bilinguals, many of whom tended to follow the pattern of behavior of American monolingual English speakers of predominantly using adjectives rather than verbs to express emotions and of frequently employing change-of-the-state verbs in descriptive language.

The latter findings are extremely important for the current study since they suggest that transformations of personal emotional scripts may occur as a part of the acculturation process. Another suggestion invites further studies to provide a qualitative

rather than quantitative analysis since qualitative analysis may reveal certain language features and changes that can not be disclosed through quantitative analysis which is also of significance for the design of the current study.

The other findings of the study did not support the hypothesis of socio-cultural competence and only partially supported the hypotheses about gender and the type of material. Based on the conclusions of the above study, the implications for further research include the investigation of:

1. the correlation between the perceived emotionality of the topic and the quality of production, especially in second language writing;
2. the impact of the differences in the emotion concepts and scripts on the process of acculturation;
3. the comprehension of emotion vocabulary, mainly the identification and categorization of emotions by the second language learners.

The next study by the same researcher (Pavlenko, 2002a) undertook the investigation of the discursive construction of emotions in the narratives by late bilinguals in order to examine the similarities and differences between descriptions of emotion states in each language. The group of participants consisted exclusively of thirty-one late Russian-English bilinguals studying at Cornell University. In contrast, in the study described prior to this one the group of bilinguals was twice as small, and the other half of the participants were Russian-speaking English as a foreign language learners. In addition, the stimuli included the two films (not four: one with American and one with Russian contexts), and the participants were randomly assigned the language

and the context of their narration. Otherwise, the procedure and the design of the study were the same as the previously described one.

Data analysis for this study was provided both quantitatively and qualitatively and focused on the identification of emotion lexicon, emotion states, and emotion scripts. The analysis of this study revealed consistent similarity with the results of the previously described research in terms of the bilinguals' transformations of their emotion concepts, verbal repertoires, and emotion scripts according to the norms of their second language community. However, this study also demonstrated some instances of semantic and morpho-syntactic transfers from the first and second languages. Such findings suggested that the participants might be at different stages in their fully discursive assimilation to language communities, which involves the ability to associate words and verbal patterns with particular scripts.

The implications for further research included the expansion of the study to the groups of immediate bilinguals (i.e. simultaneously acquiring two languages since birth), multilinguals, and learners acquiring a language of less power or prestige than their first one. Most importantly, the researcher suggested a more open-ended, less controlled design of the study, which would provide a chance for the participants to construct emotions in conversation in first person or personal narratives.

In addition, specific research questions for further research were mapped, including investigating possible difference in: 1) the way bilinguals perform in emotional discourses in first and third person narratives; 2) bilinguals' verbal repertoires in narratives and conversations. The researcher also designated a need for: 1) a more general

investigation of the process of socialization into emotion discourse; 2) a deeper analysis of the situations when individuals refuse to readjust their emotional repertoires and sound unnatural in their new community.

Although some areas for research designated in the two studies described earlier (Dewaele & Pavlenko, 2002; Pavlenko, 2002a) are too broad for the current study, other suggestions for the further investigations such as: 1) the emphasis on comprehension of certain emotive vocabulary and 2) the impact of the difference of emotion concepts and scripts on the process of acculturation is followed in the next chapter and is reflected in the research questions of the current study.

To sum up, based on the previously mentioned need for further research, the current study is aimed at investigating the level of comprehension of the emotion state vocabulary by Russian-English bilinguals and Russian-speaking English learners and identifying the correlation among the level of acculturation (socio-cultural competence) and adherence to certain emotion concepts and scripts. In short, I explained the terms related to the current study in order to assist readers with accessible definitions. Most important, this literature review has provided a connection between the previous works and research studies in the areas of cognitive linguistics, discourse analysis, and bilingualism and the goals of the current study. The addressed themes gave a foundation for further investigation from different angles and approaches: semantics, pragmatics, and second language acquisition. In Chapter Three, the design and methods of the research study are disclosed.

CHAPTER THREE: METHODS

The following qualitative and quantitative research study concerns the usage and comprehension of adjectival participles as emotion words by ARUSEs. In this chapter the research method and the tools of the study are described. I start with a description the objectives of the study; then I identify the research method and defend its choice by proving its appropriateness and sufficiency for the topic and research study. Finally, I outline the research design by detailing its participants, data collection, data analysis, and disclose the procedures for data elicitation. The tools of the research study are placed in the Appendices A-H as well as reproduced in the cumulative tables.

The Objectives of the Study

This research study serves to answer the question how frequently and accurately ARSUEs use adjectival participles as emotion words in order to understand if there is a correlation between the participants' level of comprehension of these words' emotionality, their semantico-morphological properties, and production/performance in oral narratives. In other words, the general research question concerns the dichotomy of competence and performance and factors that may affect them. Consequently, this discursive study on linguistic, socio-cultural, and pragmatic competence was conducted for the following purposes:

1. to analyze to what extent the participants comprehend the level of emotionality of certain English grammatical forms (emotional states expressions) and their meaning;
2. to investigate the frequency of certain emotive vocabulary units (mainly, adjectival participles and active verbs of emotion) in the participants' target language usage;
3. to discover the correlation between participants' comprehension of English emotive vocabulary items and frequency of their usage in the participants' second language;
4. to elicit the participants' attitude to their first and second languages in terms of emotional expressiveness or detachment.

Research Method

The description of the research method comprises the choice and justification of research tools and characterization of a general research approach. The research tools consist of both oral and written means of investigation that are aimed at the participants in the study and the control group and include six different instruments: two oral narratives, two written assignments (also offered to a control group), and two surveys. First, a background survey concerns level and type of general and L2 education, length of residence in the country, and other data pertaining to the self-description of the participants (Appendix C). Second, two oral narratives reflect the participants' reaction to

the cues in English (Appendix H). Third, two written assignments elicit the participants' analysis of the emotionality level of certain grammar expressions from the Basic Emotion Vocabulary and translate them into Russian (Appendices E and F). Finally, a survey discloses the participants' emotionality or detachment of expression in both languages and the level of emotional competence (Appendix D).

The following study represents a sample of *qualitative* research (a variation of a case study in a broader sense of the word) *with elements of correlation and quantitative treatment*. This research approach has been chosen and identified as predominantly *qualitative* for a number of reasons. First, qualitative research can better serve the purpose of the combinational nature of the study when triangulation of socio-cultural, pragmatic, and linguistic (semantico-grammatical) goals is met. Second, the following group of participants was not selected randomly since most participants had been acquainted with the researcher to a certain degree. Some of the participants that were not directly acquainted with the experimenter were referred by friends or acquaintances. Third, there was no designated site of the study since the data elicitation occurred in various private settings. Finally, the group of participants was relatively small.

However, the elements of *empirical, quantitative* research were employed when the final statistical stages of data analysis were conducted. In addition to *quantitative* treatment, the study used some correlation approaches in order to display or disprove consistency between the frequency of usage of certain grammar forms in the oral production and their comprehension in the analysis of the written samples. This approach was used to analyze the input and output connection rather than demonstrate adherence to

contrastive analysis method since both variables represent the samples from the second language. The post-test survey also provided information on the matter of participants' perception of each language's emotional expressiveness.

Research Design

Participants

The group of participants consisted of ten ARSUEs, whose level of the second language was high enough so that they could distinguish emotional coloring in written language and could extensively use emotive vocabulary in their spoken utterances. The participants were selected among the acquaintances of the researcher; however, close friends and family were not involved. However, they were used for the try-outs of the cues and for the time approximation.

The age limit was set between thirty-five and seventy-five years of age to exclude both younger and older respondents: while the former may be significantly affected by the processes of assimilation and acculturation, the latter may develop cognitive problems that would hinder their concentration and analytical skills. The emphasis on the older age of the participants was also consistent with the idea of a better preservation of the native country's cultural values (mainly that of emotionality).

Since gender was not one of the variables for the study, initially, the number of female and male subjects was random; however, I tried to avoid an overwhelming preponderance of either gender since previous studies (Pavlenko, 2002a, Pavlenko,

2002b) reported a significant impact of female gender on the volume of emotive vocabulary.

Although length of time living in this country, time and means of exposure to the English language, and means of acquiring the target language were random variables, these factors were of importance for the final analytical phase.

Sites

There were no particular designated sites for the Russian-speaking participants since the interviews were conducted in the privacy of the interviewees' or the interviewer's homes. Due to the highly sensitive topic of the research, participants needed to feel especially relaxed, not controlled or judged. It was of primary importance for the outcome to make this study on emotionality free from anxiety and stress. However, a control group of English native-speakers consisted of co-workers of the researcher (high school instructors and staff) who were surveyed at work.

Data Collection Procedures

The empirical study consisted of A and B stages (stage A involved ARSUEs; and stage B included the same participants along with a control group of English native-speakers).

A. Data collection was organized in the form of a separate private session with each participant for the sake of the purity of the experiment.

After having signed the consent (Appendix G), each participant did the background survey in the form of a questionnaire (see Appendix C).

Then, each informant was asked to respond in writing to the following cues in English:

- a. “Describe your emotional state and feelings on and after September eleventh, 2001.”
- b. “Describe your happiest childhood memory and your feelings and emotions at the moment” (Appendix H).

The oral response to the cue was recorded by the researcher. The interviewer asked each participant to speak to the cues directly into the microphone to minimize any social interaction between the two. The above cues were chosen because they could potentially produce emotional response with the first cue associated with the USA, and the second cue associated with the home country. Each participant’s response was taped by the interviewer (the researcher) on a separate labeled tape.

B. The next stage included two written assignments in form of the surveys (Appendices E and F) for the participant and control groups.

The first assignment consisted of a list of twenty-five separate adjectival participles based on the Basic English Emotion Vocabulary (Appendices A and B). In this assignment (Appendix E), the participants were asked to measure the level of emotionality of each separate word (using a Likert scale), decide whether those words had positive or negative connotation, and were passive or active. In addition, the participants were asked to translate the above words into Russian.

For the study of emotionality level identification, a control group of ten native Standard American English speaking monolinguals was asked to perform an

analogous assignment with the same list of vocabulary words. The control group included the researcher's colleagues (high school and ESL instructors).

The second written assignment consisted of twenty sentences, which included participles along with other verb tenses (simple present, present continuous, simple past). In addition, some sentences contained regular adjectives and/or nouns. The participants were asked to evaluate the level of emotionality of each sentence using the Likert scale. The responses of the subjects were compared with the evaluations of the control group (ten native speakers, colleagues of the researcher) and the control data from the previous study on the emotionality of verb tense and aspect (Dewaele & Edwards, 2003), which involved only native English speakers. Such combination of control groups provided a broader meta-statistical approach, which resulted in better substantiation of the control data.

Finally, each participant was asked to respond either in Russian or in English to a survey about the emotionality and expressiveness in each language and the significance of such expressiveness. The survey (Appendix D) included questions dealing with certain topics described in English and Russian, emotions that certain words may cause, and "non-translatable" words and expressions. Some questions of the survey were based on the survey provided online by the School of Languages, Linguistics, and Culture of the Birkbeck University of London (Dewaele, 2004).

Data Analysis

- A. The tape-recorded oral first person narratives were transcribed, coded at the word level, and analyzed in regard to the usage of the emotive vocabulary. The emotive vocabulary was categorized by the parts of speech and calculated for each speech sample. All the emotive vocabulary instances were placed in the table. Each emotion vocabulary word was multiplied by the number of times it was used. The resulted “tokens” were counted. The proportion of each part of speech category was calculated and presented in a diagram, which was contrasted to the results of the study by Pavlenko (2002).
- B. In the analysis of the written samples which consisted of twenty-five separate emotion words (Appendix E) and twenty sentences (Appendix F), the following data was collected:
1. the proportion of correct sample translations into Russian was calculated;
 2. the levels of emotional expressiveness per each word sample were added in order to calculate the mean number of emotionality level;
 3. the mean number of emotionality level per each word was compared with the mean numbers elicited from the control group and the previous study.

Finally, the analysis of production (part A) and comprehension (part B) with the inclusion of the results from both surveys was provided in order to make a conclusion

about the correlation between comprehension and production of the emotional states words.

In this chapter I have outlined the data collection and analysis procedures along with the description of participants and control groups. In the following Chapter Four, the results of the study will be discussed. In Chapter Five, conclusions about emotionality expressiveness in both languages under consideration, validity and limitations of the study will be made along with implications for further research and ESL pedagogy.

CHAPTER FOUR: RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This chapter provides analysis of the research study and its results in accordance with the chronological order of the study itself. While the discussion on the background surveys covers specific characteristics of the study participants, four further analyses of the assignments (two oral narratives and two semantico-grammatical written tasks in the form of surveys) are aimed at answering the main research question of the study concerning the usage and comprehension of adjectival participles as emotion words by ARUSEs. The core research question of the study is:

To what degree do ARSUEs comprehend adjectival participles as emotion words and how frequently do they use this emotion vocabulary in oral first person narratives?

Finally, the analysis of the questionnaire on the level of emotional intensity serves as a means to provide participants' perception of their command of English including their ability to render their emotional needs in communication with native speakers of English. This part of the chapter sheds light on the sub-question whether there is a correlation between the level of comprehension of adjectival participles as emotion words and frequency of their usage by ARUSEs.

Background Survey: Participants of the Study

The participants of the study included ten ARUSEs (five couples), thirty-five to fifty-two years of age. The subjects had been selected semi-randomly on the basis of their distant acquaintance with the researcher. All of the participants had been living in the United States for a substantial amount of time: The earliest time of their arrival was marked as of 1996, and the latest time of their arrival dated back to 1991. Another common characteristic feature of the participants was their high level of general education: the entire group had graduated from five-year university programs (equal to US MA/MS degrees); two participants earned Ph.D. degrees (one was awarded it in the former Soviet Union and the other in the United States); one participant was enrolled in an American Ph.D. program. In addition, two participants were working as medical providers, and other two respondents were employed in the technology field. Only two participants acquired significantly lower social status, when their occupations changed from teaching music at the college level in their home country to working as laboratory technicians and then even being laid off and involved in re-training in the medical field.

As regards the participants' second language education, it varied from natural acquisition, traditional secondary school, university level courses back in the former Soviet Union, and an immersion at an early age. According to the participants' self-evaluation, two respondents had acquired English language skills at a low level; two participants had advanced level English skills, and the remaining six participants described themselves as intermediate level English as Second Language speakers.

Oral Narratives

Ten oral narratives to the first cue (emotional reaction to the tragic events of the eleventh of September 2001) that had been recorded and transcribed yielded the following emotion words categorized by the parts of speech:

Table 1: Oral Narratives—Script #1

| Nouns | Verbs | Participles | Adjectives | Adverbs/Other |
|--------------|---------------|--------------------|-------------------|----------------------|
| Emotion*2 | Disagree | Shocked | Secure*3 | Honestly |
| Feeling | Blame | Excited | Helpful | Safely |
| Enemy | Affect/ed | Worried | Difficult*2 | Never |
| Frustration | 'wanna' | Crushed | Tight | Extremely |
| Effect | Believe*3 | Crashing | Safe | Fortunately |
| Rage | Harbor | Shocking | Uncertain | Emotionally |
| Revenge | Protect | Disturbing | Barbarian | Immediately |
| Impression | Take lives | Composed | Emotional*3 | Really |
| Terror | Hurt | Unexpected | Strange*3 | |
| Disbelief | Destroy | Striking | Dangerous | |
| Disaster | Enjoy | Collapsing | Innocent*2 | |
| Anger | Worry | Unknown | Terrible* 3 | |
| Irritation | Deserve | Complicated | Stupid | |
| Tragedy | Love | | Crazy | |
| Pain | Felt bad | | Inappropriate | |
| Fear | Suffer/ed | | Angry*2 | |
| | Strike/Struck | | Happy | |
| | Done on | | Peaceful*2 | |
| | Cry | | Sad | |
| | Feel pity | | Nice | |
| | | | Unrealistic | |
| | | | Painful | |
| | | | Confident | |
| | | | Vulnerable | |
| | | | Helpless | |
| | | | Dearest | |
| | | | Closest | |
| | | | Memorable | |
| | | | Afraid | |

Table 1 vividly displays that the majority of emotion words used by the participants were adjectives (twenty-nine words); the next largest category comprised verbs (twenty words); nouns accounted for sixteen entries, and adjectival participles represented the second smallest category (thirteen words) in this table. On several occasions participants needed to use even more emotive verbs; however, due to their lack of knowledge of an appropriate English word, they code-switched to their native language instead.

It should also be noted that one of the participants substituted the offered cue by the prompt of his choice, which was an option mentioned in the consent agreement. I believe, that this preference to describe a tragic event that had happened back in the home country rather than talk about the emotional reaction to the events in the United States emphasized the participant's detachment from the life in the US. Another participant specifically noted that she would always be more involved in the life of her native country. Comments of a third participant disclosed the change of attitude to this country's affairs directly after the terrorist attacks when she took all the events much closer to her heart. In addition, practically every participant compared the events of the eleventh of September with terrorist acts in Russia and Israel.

I **think** that these attitudes and levels of involvement have to do with the levels of participants' acculturation in this country. It is not accidental that the participants who preferred to describe tragic events in their home country or indicated deeper concern with affairs and life in their homeland traveled to their native country at least annually. In contrast, the participants who related to the United States as "*our country*" had not

traveled back to their home country since their immigration. These two extreme examples of attitudes reflect a conscious decision towards acculturation. However, other respondents did not demonstrate such a clear-cut and controlled attitude. Due to the small scope of the study, I was unable to find further correlation between these attitudes and study results. One of the suggestions for further research in Chapter Five will pertain to this research issue.

It is of interest to see whether a topic influences the choice of vocabulary in the narrative to the subsequent cue which follows. The second cue dealt with the description of emotions caused by a happy event back in the native country at a younger age. The elicited words, sorted by categories, are shown in Table 2. The responses to the second cue elicited more emotion words than the first cue: twenty-seven nouns, twenty-three adjectives, nine verbs, and five adjectival participles were registered. The second cue also produced far fewer adjectival participles than verbs. However, the number of nouns in the second narrative was significantly bigger than in the first one. This result may be attributed to the influence of the topic. Since the terrorist attack had been a common topic of discussion by the media and English native speakers at work, the participants might have acquired more common expressions (including adjectival participles) that were used around them.

Table 2: Oral Narratives—Script #2

| Nouns | Verbs | Participles | Adjectives | Adverbs |
|---------------|--------------|--------------------|-------------------|----------------|
| Comfort | Loved*5 | Impaired | Comfortable | Thoroughly |
| Faith | Abstract | Blackened | Safe | Freely |
| Love*3 | Was crying | Assimilated | “Careless” | Vividly |
| Relief | Enjoy | Overwhelming | worry free | |
| Closure | Remember | Connected | Happy*6 | |
| Opportunities | Appreciate | | Interesting | |
| Recollection | Care*2 | | Unusual | |
| Sense | Experience | | Wonderful*2 | |
| Happiness*2 | Liked | | Happiest | |
| Paradise | | | Clean/ pure*2 | |
| Fault | | | Emotional | |
| Jokes | | | Simple | |
| Sadness | | | Famous | |
| Peace | | | Hard | |
| Easiness | | | Great | |
| Quietness | | | Beautiful*2 | |
| Acceptance | | | Nice*2 | |
| Transparency | | | Special | |
| Lightness | | | Quiet | |
| Defense | | | Warm | |
| Struggle | | | Peaceful | |
| Warmth | | | Tough | |
| Resistance | | | Fine | |
| Obligations | | | Attractive | |
| Cry | | | | |
| Cures | | | | |
| Pain | | | | |

On the contrary, the second cue was related to the past and the language associated with it, which could have affected a different pattern of expression and expressiveness that was closer to the participants’ native language. The results elicited through the comparison between the narratives to the first and second cues, as illustrated in Table 3, most definitely reflect the influence of the topic (in terms of tragic/happy dichotomy and its relation to a certain country). For the sake of more accurate comparison with the data

from Pavlenko’s study (2002), frequency treatment was applied to the words to reflect the number of the words’ usage. Each word was multiplied by the number of times it was used, producing “tokens” for each category, the number of which was later contrasted. As regards to the *adjectival participles*, the first prompt produced thirteen adjectival participles, and the second cue elicited only five of them. The other emotion words and their tokens are represented in the following table:

Table 3: Oral Narratives—Emotion Words Prompted by Cue #1 and Cue #2

| Cue | Nouns | | Verbs | | Adjectives | | Adverbs | |
|-----|-------|--------|-------|--------|------------|--------|---------|--------|
| | Words | Tokens | Words | Tokens | Words | Tokens | Words | Tokens |
| #1 | 16 | 18 | 20 | 23 | 29 | 41 | 8 | 8 |
| #2 | 27 | 30 | 9 | 14 | 24 | 33 | 3 | 3 |

On the whole, this experiment confirmed the current study’s preliminary hypothesis on the insignificant number of adjectival participles used by Russian-speaking users of English. One of the reasons for such an insignificant number of adjectival participles may be explained by the participants’ sticking to their emotionality culture scripts associated with their native culture. Another reason may be the overall proficiency level of the participants’ speaking skills, mostly in regards to vocabulary richness and variety.

The comparison with previous research findings in this area of study may be only indirect for a number of reasons. Some previous studies (Pavlenko, 2002) involved strictly bilingual participants who acquired English either before puberty or after puberty but at much earlier age than the participants in the current study, while the majority of participants included in this study had an intermediate level of English proficiency

(according to their self-evaluation). Other studies analyzed third person narratives (Dewaele & Pavlenko, 2002) while first person narratives were analyzed in this study. The third group of studies on emotion words included English and Russian monolinguals and/or analyzed written samples (Wierzbicka, 1992; 1998). Most importantly, none of the previous studies has selected adjectival participles as a separate category of emotion vocabulary and as a point for investigation.

However, the closest in approach was Pavlenko's study (2002) aimed at eliciting third-person narratives as reaction to the films from forty Russian-English bilinguals. This study confirmed a preponderance of adjectives as emotion words in the narratives of Russian-English bilinguals. Because Pavlenko did not distinguish between regular adjectives and adjectival participles, it is of interest to contrast the results of this current study with Pavlenko's data (2002) by extracting adjectival participles in her study's table as a separate category. This procedure yielded the following adjectival participles: *annoying, ashamed (2), disappointed, distressed, disturbed (3), frustrated (2), irritated, preoccupied, puzzled, surprised, upset (24), and worried*. Out of twelve adjectival participles, predominantly passive, only one (*worried*) was used in the current study of narratives to the first cue. Instead of the past participle *disturbed*, the present participle *disturbing* was used in the current study. None of the twelve participles from Pavlenko's study was used in the narratives to the second cue in the current study. This occurrence may be explained by the effect of a topic as well. Pavlenko applied a frequency treatment to her data: each word was multiplied by the number of times it was used, producing "tokens" for each category, the number of which was later contrasted. For accuracy

reasons, the data from the current study was also analogously treated and converted into tokens. Table 4 provides the data from three narratives: one to the first cue in the current study, one to the second cue, and one from Pavlenko's study:

Table 4: First Person Narratives vs. Third Person Narratives (Pavlenko, 2002)

| Data | Nouns | | Verbs | | Participles | | Adverbs | | Nouns | |
|----------|-------|--------|-------|--------|-------------|--------|---------|--------|-------|--------|
| | Words | Tokens | Words | Tokens | Words | Tokens | Words | Tokens | Words | Tokens |
| Cue #1 | 16 | 18 | 20 | 23 | 13 | 13 | 28 | 40 | 8 | 8 |
| Cue #2 | 27 | 30 | 9 | 14 | 5 | 5 | 23 | 33 | 3 | 3 |
| Pavlenko | 16 | 17 | 12 | 19 | 11 | 37 | 13 | 22 | 1 | 5 |

It should be noted that the tremendous difference between the number of elicited adjectival participles and their tokens in Pavlenko's experiment is due to the fact that the word *upset* was used twenty-four times, while other participles were uttered from one to three times. Otherwise, Pavlenko's data was consistent with this study's findings. However, the difference in the number of emotion words may also lie in the researchers' perception of the nature of emotion vocabulary.

While this experiment dealt with the production of adjectival participles, further experiments revealed how participants comprehended adjectival participles as emotion words, and how their ratings were contrasted to the control group data. The research tasks consisted of the analyses of separate words and sentences, which also gave a chance to include context as a variable and to contrast various grammar forms.

Word Analysis

Twenty-five adjectival participles (both active and passive) were selected from the Basic Emotion Vocabulary list (Appendices A & B). The rest of the forty emotion words were regular adjectives. The adjectival participles were analyzed by the participants for emotionality level (on a Likert scale), passivity/activity, and negativity/positivity. The mean number of the emotionality level for each word in each category was calculated by the researcher and compared with the mean numbers elicited from ten members of the control group. However, due to either their lack of knowledge or lack of confidence, several respondents chose not to analyze certain words, which complicated the calculation of each word analysis. Several words were checked as both positive and negative.

The final data on the word perception is summarized in Table 5. The participants are entered as group A; and the control group is marked as B. The *Content and Difference* column displays the number of participants who did not know the meaning of the adjectival participles (they either did not provide the answer or commented on their lack of knowledge orally) with a negative figure. It also shows the difference between the emotionality ratings provided by group A and group B.

Table 5: Word Analysis: Participants (A) vs. Control Group (B)

| Word | Count | Emotional | | Positive | | Negative | | Active | | Passive | | Totals | |
|--------------|-------|-----------|-----|----------|----|----------|----|--------|---|---------|----|---------|-------|
| | | A | B | A | B | A | B | A | B | A | B | Content | A – B |
| Ashamed | 9 | 3.1 | 4.3 | 0 | 0 | 9 | 10 | 2 | 3 | 7 | 7 | -1 | - 1.2 |
| Despairing | 7 | 4.1 | 4.4 | 0 | 0 | 7 | 10 | 4 | 6 | 3 | 4 | -3 | -0.3 |
| Amused | 8 | 2.8 | 3.2 | 6 | 9 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 6 | 8 | -2 | -0.4 |
| Bored | 9 | 2.1 | 2.0 | 0 | 0 | 9 | 10 | 1 | 0 | 8 | 10 | -1 | 0.1 |
| Relaxed | 9 | 1.8 | 1.6 | 9 | 10 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 8 | 10 | -1 | 0.2 |
| Excited | 9 | 4.3 | 3.8 | 9 | 10 | 0 | 2 | 6 | 2 | 3 | 8 | -1 | 0.5 |
| Pleased | 9 | 2.6 | 2.3 | 9 | 10 | 0 | 0 | 4 | 1 | 5 | 9 | -1 | 0.3 |
| Interested | 9 | 2.0 | 2.4 | 9 | 10 | 0 | 0 | 5 | 5 | 4 | 5 | -1 | -0.4 |
| Disapproving | 9 | 2.3 | 2.5 | 0 | 0 | 9 | 10 | 6 | 5 | 3 | 5 | -1 | -0.2 |
| Shocked | 9 | 4.1 | 4.1 | 0 | 2 | 9 | 10 | 4 | 4 | 5 | 6 | -1 | 0 |
| Terrified | 9 | 4.1 | 4.5 | 0 | 0 | 9 | 10 | 4 | 2 | 5 | 8 | -1 | -0.4 |
| Depressed | 8 | 3.5 | 3.4 | 0 | 0 | 9 | 10 | 1 | 1 | 7 | 9 | -2 | 0.1 |
| Delighted | 8 | 4.6 | 3.8 | 8 | 10 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 2 | 6 | 8 | -2 | 0.8 |
| Exhilarated | 8 | 3.9 | 3.8 | 7 | 8 | 1 | 2 | 4 | 4 | 4 | 6 | -2 | 0.1 |
| Loving | 9 | 3.9 | 3.4 | 9 | 10 | 0 | 0 | 7 | 7 | 2 | 3 | -1 | 0.5 |
| Relieved | 9 | 2.7 | 3.6 | 9 | 10 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 0 | 7 | 10 | -1 | -0.9 |
| Disgusted | 8 | 4.0 | 3.5 | 1 | 0 | 7 | 10 | 3 | 5 | 5 | 5 | -3 | 0.5 |
| Surprised | 9 | 3.2 | 2.9 | 9 | 9 | 3 | 2 | 4 | 5 | 5 | 5 | -1 | 0.3 |
| Satisfied | 9 | 2.9 | 2.9 | 9 | 10 | 0 | 0 | 4 | 0 | 5 | 10 | -1 | -0.3 |
| Embarrassed | 8 | 3.5 | 3.0 | 1 | 0 | 7 | 10 | 4 | 4 | 4 | 6 | -2 | 0.5 |
| Hurt | 9 | 4.2 | 3.4 | 0 | 0 | 9 | 10 | 4 | 4 | 5 | 6 | -1 | 0.8 |
| Irritated | 8 | 3.3 | 3.4 | 0 | 0 | 8 | 10 | 3 | 5 | 5 | 5 | -2 | -0.1 |
| Annoyed | 7 | 3.0 | 3.0 | 0 | 0 | 7 | 10 | 3 | 4 | 4 | 6 | -3 | 0 |
| Disappointed | 9 | 3.1 | 2.5 | 0 | 0 | 9 | 10 | 2 | 3 | 7 | 7 | -1 | 0.6 |
| Boring | 9 | 2.1 | 2.1 | 0 | 0 | 9 | 10 | 5 | 6 | 4 | 4 | -1 | 0 |

Quantitative analysis of the above survey reveals that most of the participants completely understood the negative or positive nature of the adjectival participles under consideration since their answers fully coincided with those of the control group.

However, some of the participants failed to evaluate several participles because they were unknown to them. The last column in the table reflects the number of participants not

providing the answer and the difference between the participants' and control group's answers. In the category of emotionality level, there were only three identical ratings (*shocked* -4.1; *annoyed*- 3.0, and *boring*- 2.1). There were several strikingly different ratings which occurred among the evaluation of both positively and negatively marked participles: the participants most significantly underestimated participles *ashamed* (-1.2) and *relieved* (-0.9) and overestimated such participles as *delighted* and *hurt* (0.8), *disappointed* (0.6), and *excited, loving, disgusted, embarrassed* (0.5). However, in the study for the selection of Basic English Emotion Vocabulary (BEEV), the words that were underrated by the participants of the current study were marked among the least probable inclusions in the Basic English Emotion Vocabulary by thirty-six respondents who contributed their answers. Ratings in other categories bear less pronounced differences. Most differences occurred in the category of activity - passivity, which was the most significant and the expected finding since a semantic distinction between present and past participles is an important ESL teaching aspect. Most past participles were marked by ARUSEs and the control group as passive; however, there were several discrepancies with present participles. There were a significant number of participants who marked words *loving, boring, and despairing* as passive.

While concentration on the word level provided information on lexical semantics of the language phenomena under consideration, another experiment shed light on the pragmatic usage and syntactical semantics of the usage of adjectival participles. Both participants and the control group members were asked to evaluate twenty sentences, some of which contained present or past adjectival participles (also chosen from BEEV),

while the other sentences comprised different grammatical category derivatives of the same root. The sentence samples included simple present, present progressive, and simple past verb forms. The following sentences were chosen by the researcher to investigate if emotionality level of a certain sentence would be consistent with a morpho-grammatical form and/or a morpho-grammatical category.

Sentence Analysis

Table 6: Sentence Analysis: Control Group vs. Participants

| Sentence | Control Group | Participants | Difference | Translation | |
|------------------------------------|---------------|--------------|------------|-------------|--------------|
| | | | | Correct | Participants |
| 1. I am embarrassed. | 3.4 | 3.6 | 0.2 | 8 | 8 |
| 2. This is embarrassing. | 2.5 | 2.9 | 0.4 | 6 | 8 |
| 3. You often/ always embarrass me. | 4.0 | 3.0 | -1.0 | 7 | 8 |
| 4. You are embarrassing me. | 3.9 | 3.6 | -0.3 | 8 | 8 |
| 5. She is excited. | 1.7 | 4.1 | 2.4 | 7 | 8 |
| 6. This is exciting news. | 2.9 | 3.1 | 0.2 | 6 | 8 |
| 7. It excites me. | 2.8 | 3.1 | 0.3 | 7 | 8 |
| 8. It keeps exciting me. | 2.8 | 3.0 | 0.2 | 6 | 8 |
| 9. He is bored. | 1.6 | 2.0 | 0.4 | 7 | 8 |
| 10. This is boring. | 2.5 | 2.0 | -0.5 | 8 | 8 |
| 11. She bores me. | 2.3 | 2.8 | 0.5 | 6 | 8 |
| 12. They are bores. | 2.7 | 2.8 | 0.1 | 5 | 8 |
| 13. He is impressed. | 1.3 | 4.1 | 2.8 | 6 | 8 |
| 14. It impresses me. | 2.0 | 3.8 | 1.8 | 7 | 8 |
| 15. This is impressive. | 2.9 | 3.9 | 1.0 | 7 | 8 |
| 16. She is impressive. | 2.7 | 2.9 | 0.2 | 6 | 8 |
| 17. It worried me. | 1.9 | 2.4 | 0.5 | 8 | 8 |
| 18. I am worried. | 3.3 | 3.3 | 0 | 8 | 8 |
| 19. I always worry. | 2.6 | 3.4 | 0.8 | 8 | 8 |
| 20. I am worrying. | 2.9 | 3.8 | 0.9 | 8 | 8 |

While the control group respondents consistently ranked the emotionality level of most present adjectival participles significantly higher than the emotionality level of the past adjectival participles (*bored*- 1.6 & *boring* -2.5; *impressed*-1.3 & *impressing*-2.9; *excited* -1.7 & *exciting* – 2.9), the study participants did not demonstrate such consistency. This result coincided with Dewaele and Edwards' (2003) conclusion that native speakers consistently ranked progressive verb forms slightly higher on emotionality level than non-progressive verb forms. Although adjectival participles differ drastically from the *-ing* verb forms, the semantics of the *-ing* suffix is presented in the former verbal form as well (Bresnan, 1982). However, some present and past participles were marked by the participants as having the same emotionality level (*bored* & *boring* – 2.0), some past participles were ranked as having higher emotionality level (*impressed* - 4.1 & *impressing*-3.9).

On the whole, on the sentence level, the results displayed only one equal rating of the sentence containing the word *worried*: *I am worried* (both participants and control group members marked it as 3.3). This word was marked as highly probable for the inclusion in BEEV (0.8/1.0) by the previous study participants, which shows that this word combination is a common occurrence. However, the participants of the study marked sentences with active verbs rendering the same meaning at a much higher emotional level. *I always worry* was rated as 3.4 by the participants and as 2.6 by the control group; *I am worrying* was marked as 3.8 by the participants and as 2.9 by the control group. Although such a tendency was not confirmed by other examples

(participles vs. active verb), this result may be explained by a small size of both groups. Further research study may be needed for a more definite outcome.

It is of interest to compare similar sentences from the study by Dewaele & Edwards (2003). The sentence *I've been worrying about it* was marked as having the second highest emotionality level of all the thirty-six utterances and highest of the three analogous sentences. The sentence *I worry about it* was marked as second highest of the three, and the sentence *I'm worried about it* was ranked as having the lowest emotionality level of the three analyzed sentences. The correlation between the aspectual and temporal properties of the verb form and emotionality level is also worth noting. The present perfect progressive form may be marked as most emotional since it involves a longer duration of emotion. While the simple present form reflects repetitiveness and regularity, the adjectival participle describes a present emotive state, which does not reflect any duration notion.

Generally, the participants' overall ratings were significantly higher in most of the sentences (11.4). This finding shows that ARUSEs placed more emotional value on English sentences than native speakers. The highest numerical difference was marked with past participles (*excited*+ 2.4 & *impressed* +2.8).

The comprehension of the sentences was checked by the translation into the participants' native language. Most of the participants translated all of the sentences adequately. Some translations did not render the exact meaning, which was characteristic of the participants with a lower command of English. As regards the correlation between the comprehension of the adjectival participles and their usage, it was noted that the level

of comprehension of adjectival participles as emotion words was significantly higher than their usage. While adjectival participles were the second less abundant group of all the emotion word categories, the level of this category's emotionality level, passivity/activity, and positivity/negativity corresponded to the ratings provided by the control group. The data also confirms the anticipated difference in task-based performance with controlled output providing closer to near-native level of language skills.

In the final survey, the participants of the study estimated their emotional discourse with English native speakers and analyzed differences in the way they and native speakers of English expressed emotions. All of the participants spoke English mostly at work and used Russian as a language of communication with family and friends. As regards friendship with native speakers, most participants had American friends but mentioned their insignificant number. Among the factors limiting their ability to express emotions, most participants (seven) mentioned lack of knowledge of appropriate vocabulary and low level of fluency in English. However, everybody in the group remarked on his/her ability to completely comprehend emotional messages of native speakers. Other positive comments included acknowledgement of their American co-workers' ability to be patient and to be good listeners. One female respondent mentioned her preference to discuss emotionally-colored situations with her American friends and colleagues who would not gossip and would not be judgmental rather than doing it with her Russian-speaking friends.

Among the negative features of emotional discourse with native speakers, their custom to overreact and exaggerate their feelings was mentioned. The most upsetting

characteristics of emotional discourse for ARUSEs were rendered as Americans' habit of avoidance to discuss negative situations and of being too indirect, which often hurt work-related situations.

To sum up, in this chapter I have provided the discussion of the experiments and their results, mainly the confirmation of the hypothesized statement that ARUSEs use adjectival participles infrequently to convey their emotions in oral narratives. In addition, there was no significant correlation between the comprehension of the nature of adjectival participles as emotion words and their usage in oral narratives. Chapter Five is dedicated to the final discussion of the research study, its relevance for the ESL classroom, and suggestions for implementation of various further teaching and research suggestions.

CHAPTER FIVE: CONCLUSION

This research study is in an area of ESL research on emotion, pragmatics, and second language acquisition. It has specifically contributed to the analysis of the ways Russian-speaking English language users can comprehend and express emotions through certain grammatical forms and structures. The usage of adjectival participles as emotion words in the oral first-person narratives of adult Russian-speaking users of English and their comprehension on the word and sentence level have been analyzed from various angles and through several approaches. The study's findings confirmed the hypothesized infrequent usage of adjectival participles as emotion words. However, a direct correlation between the comprehension of adjectival participles and their production has not been revealed. Through the comparison of the participants' and the control group's estimations, this multi-level study showed that the participants completely comprehended whether adjectival participles had a negative or positive connotation. Despite the participants' frequent misinterpretation of the samples' emotionality level and passive or active nature of adjectival participles, the overall level of comprehension of these grammatical forms was significantly higher than the frequency of their usage.

The limitations of the study included the small number of participants and their overall lower proficiency level as compared to other studies (Deweale & Pavlenko, 2002; Pavlenko, 2002). For further studies, it would be advisable to double the number of participants and the members of the control group and address these research questions to

a group of participants with a higher level of language proficiency. The higher level of language proficiency seems to be in correlation with the variety of emotion vocabulary and speakers' ability to express emotions both directly and indirectly. Although the selection of separate emotion words and sentences was based on the BEEV, another limitation concerned less strict parameters of emotion vocabulary used in the participants' narratives and sentence surveys, which may have invited more subjectivity in the results of the research study

For further research studies in the area of emotion vocabulary usage and comprehension, it may be of interest to compare the usage of emotion words in the first-person and the third-person narratives by the same participants. This approach may provide a valuable insight into the area of pragmatics. The contextual constraints of the narrative will provide background for the contrast between the description of the third party's emotional expression and the description of actual experiencing of such an emotion. Another suggestion for expansion may involve written rather than oral narratives. This approach may allow for an in-depth analysis of controlled language samples, which could be of particular interest for teaching writing and grammar skills. It would also contribute to research in the area of interlanguage variations across tasks.

Current study participants represented five married couples. However, due to time limitations no specific analysis of the performance of spouses or their perception of emotion words has been made. Looking at the difference in the way spouses express and comprehend emotions may provide a window to a better understanding of gender and familial roles in the culture under consideration. In all of the participating couples,

husbands had much higher professional positions and a significantly higher level of English. The professional status and language proficiency of the five couples under consideration may be accidental. However, the interrelation between a social position and English language fluency is not. This situation could be a reflection and an extension of their spousal roles in the couples' home country. Another explanation could be connected with women's allegedly higher level of readiness to sacrifice their own positions. This claim can be supported by my own personal experience and by the numerous life stories of my Russian-speaking friends. A case study approach involving comparison of spousal reactions may provide a chance to learn more about coping mechanisms of non-native speakers of English and their acculturation and the role of familial discourse. Such a study may also provide additional data on the internal and external mechanisms of emotions. Another approach to the analysis of spousal emotionality may be a research study of mixed couples where one spouse is a native speaker while the other is not. This approach may confirm a suggestion (Dewaele & Edwards, 2002) that the intensity of communication in a target language plays a more significant role in successful language acquisition and acculturation than the length of the exposure to the language. When characterizing their language usage, the study participants unanimously mentioned that they spoke English at work only. Speaking English with a spouse may significantly increase the intensity of language usage and affect the level of acculturation, which the study involving mixed couples may confirm or disprove.

Last, but not least, the cues for the narratives may be varied so that both negative (tragic) and positive (happy) situations would be connected with the same country. By

implementing these variations a researcher may have a chance to investigate a consistent influence of a topic and a country and language origin. In addition, switching the order of prompts with a happy situation preceding a tragic one and including a control group of native English speakers may provide another fruitful source for contrasting language production skills.

The following suggestions for ESL pedagogy include the discussion of an appropriate level of students' proficiency for elicitation of adjectival participles as emotion words, activities for elicitation, development, and mastering these linguistic features along with certain grammatical observations. Most of these suggestions stem from my own experience as an ESL instructor.

It is my recommendation that adjectival participles not be introduced at a beginning or low intermediate level of language acquisition. I believe that the effective usage of these forms involves a certain level of English and immersion in a target culture. However, for adult English learners who belong to the same culture a support of a native language may expedite the acquisition process of adjectival participles and "downgrade" the level of language proficiency. The native language may be also used in the discussion on the ways Americans express emotions and cultural acceptance of certain behaviors. However, such a situation may not be feasible or desirable in a mixed-language ESL class. In general, the issues of need and context should be considered more thoroughly when making a decision on the inclusion of the emotion vocabulary in a lesson.

To elicit adjectival participles as emotion words, an ESL instructor may use several introductory techniques including video clips, pictures (comic strips or cartoons

would work best), TV advertisement, photographs, pantomime, gestures, reading samples, games, and songs. In all of these visual aides a teacher's comments should include contrasted usage of present and past participles. Then, a teacher may start a grammatical part of explanation by emphasizing the inflections as signals and drawing students' attention to the difference between the *-ed/en* and *-ing* forms. For visual learners a teacher may apply the concept of vividness of interpretation using brighter colors for the present participles and darker colors for past participles. This suggestion is based on Huffman's (1989) interpretation of degree of vividness where *-ing* is more vivid than *-ed/-en*. This concept of vividness of grammar forms coincides with our previous discussion of emotional intensity levels and its perception by native and non-native speakers (Dewaele & Edwards, 2002). Another grammatical point should be an explanation that animate and inanimate noun heads accept different participles as attributes to denote feelings and emotions. A teacher should emphasize that only animate nouns may be described by past adjectival participles denoting feelings and emotions: *excited teenager, bored student, amazed teacher* versus *exciting news* or *actress, boring lecture* or *teacher, amazing movie* or *architect*.

To develop the usage of adjectival participles as emotion words both speaking, reading, and writing skills may be involved. An ESL teacher should include communicative assignments that would center on expressions of emotions the way they are accepted in a culture of a target language. For example, a teacher could include certain sketches and role plays involving job related situations (work performance, job interview, gossiping, and small talk). Students would realize that it is not common in this

culture to express negative emotions directly, both at work and in non-work environment. Such activities may also include a group brainstorming for the most appropriate ways to render emotions. However, various emotionality levels of communication in cultures rather than Russian or American should be taken into consideration. Prior to the introduction of this schema, an ESL teacher needs to obtain certain background knowledge of the students' emotional cultural scripts. For example, in a class comprised of Japanese, Russian, and Mexican students, Russian and American cultural norms would not seem so distant. In addition, to introduce the discussion of various emotional cultural scripts, a teacher needs to establish certain rapport with the students.

For the development of speaking skills, the discussion of favorite movies may be suggested. Students may talk about the kinds of movies they like to watch (e. g. *shocking*) and how these movies may make them feel (*shocked*). Students may watch a movie together, go to a play and then discuss the action and the characters' emotions. Role plays describing real situations at work, in the store, on the bus, in the clinic, telephone manners, and small talk should include certain focus on emotion vocabulary (including adjectival participles) and accepted patterns of emotional behavior. An emphasis should be placed on the way negative emotions and situations are handled. Here the students may be intrigued by the metaphoric comparison of emotions in different cultures with different language dialects. According to the so-called dialect theory of emotions, numerous cross-cultural differences in the way emotions are encoded and expressed are cited; however, these differences are not antagonizing; rather they are dialectical, since

the language of emotion is claimed to be universal in essence for all of the humans (Elfenbein & Ambady, 2003).

Other topics for classroom discussions may be the so-called *art of resilience* and directness or indirectness of emotional expressions. “Art of resilience” philosophy is based on the positive psychology approach, whose three steps (identifying emotional problems, capturing a personal reaction, and examining beliefs) may be instrumental in empowering ARUSEs with a positive and constructive attitude to cross-cultural communication and expression of emotions (Capuzzi Simon, 2004). Discussions of directness and indirectness of emotional expressions may also present a meaningful teachable point for cultural introduction. This teaching objective can be successfully implemented while mastering reading skills as well.

In order to develop reading and writing skills students may read a memoir as a class or individually. The reading assignment may be accompanied by writing third-person essays about people and events described in the memoir. Keeping a reading log or a TV log with concentration on emotional vocabulary along with their own diaries may be another option for more introverted students. Writing first-person narratives based on the autobiographical events may provide another invaluable chance for the students to practice emotional expressions and give teachers a chance to understand their students in different ways (Bell, 2003; Pavlenko, 2003).

To sum up, this study confirmed the main conclusions of previous research in the area of emotion vocabulary. Mainly, the collected data revealed infrequency of adjectival participle usage as emotion words in the first-person oral narratives of adult Russian-

speaking users and learners of the English language. In addition, this study confirmed variations in performance across task in the area of emotion vocabulary and discourse analysis.

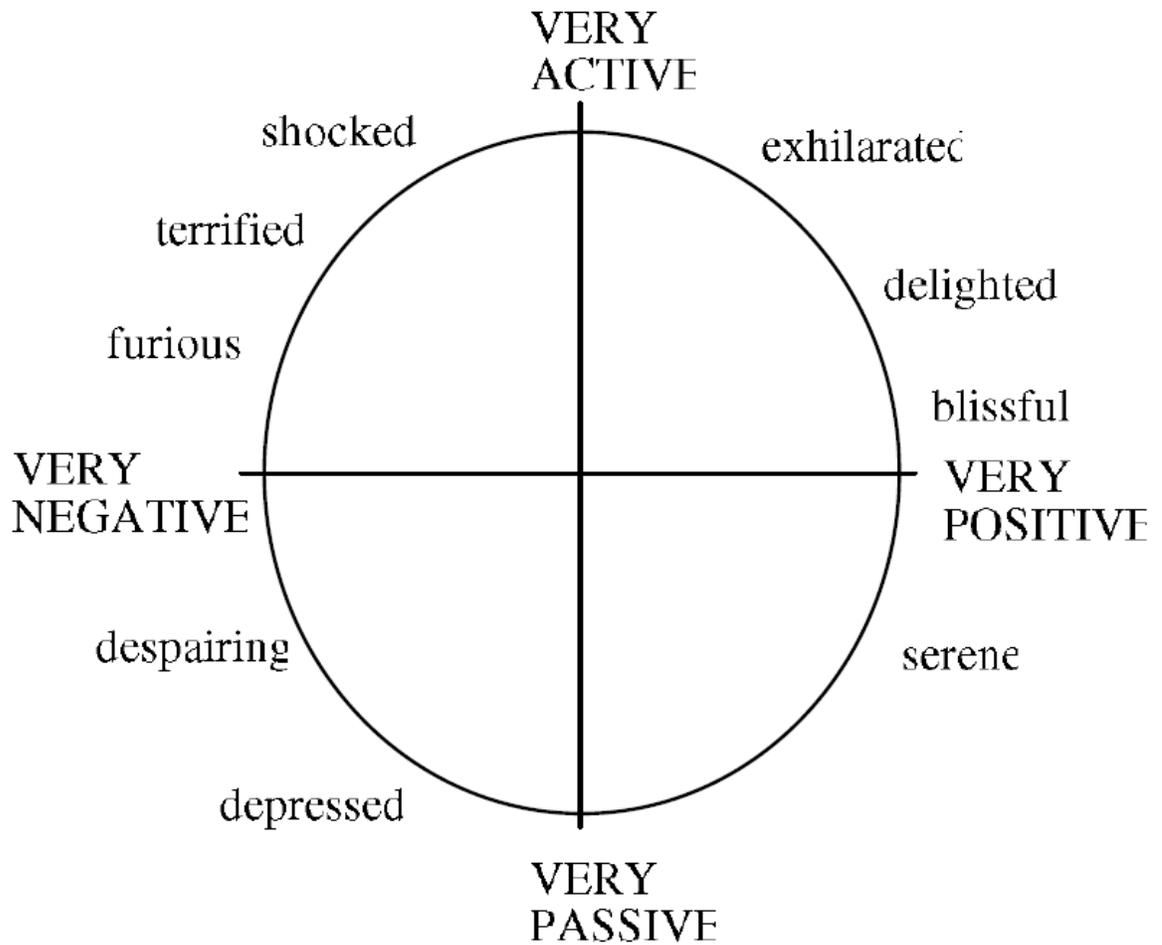
Another outcome of this study was my personal and professional development. Working on this Capstone has given me a chance to get acquainted with prolific research in various areas of linguistics has provided me with a solid foundation for writing this thesis and doing this research study. As an ESL teacher, I have come to a better understanding of the needs of adult Russian-speaking users of English in the area of emotion vocabulary. The organization and implementation of this research study was an opportunity to connect with a group of ARSUEs who shared their views on emotionality in their native and second languages. In several post-study meetings and discussions, many participants in the study mentioned that meta-linguistic activities within and after the study contributed to their better understanding of emotionality in their communication in both languages and comprehension of the language features that help to express or conceal their emotionality.

Hopefully, the findings of the study, along with my suggestions for ESL pedagogy and further research, will be useful for ESL educators and researchers. This study may provide some ideas for further research in numerous areas of cross-cultural psychology, discursive linguistics, and semantics. ESL educators may use this thesis to get some background knowledge of their Russian-speaking learners of English in order to provide a better assessment of the students' needs and establishing a better rapport with this group of ESL students.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

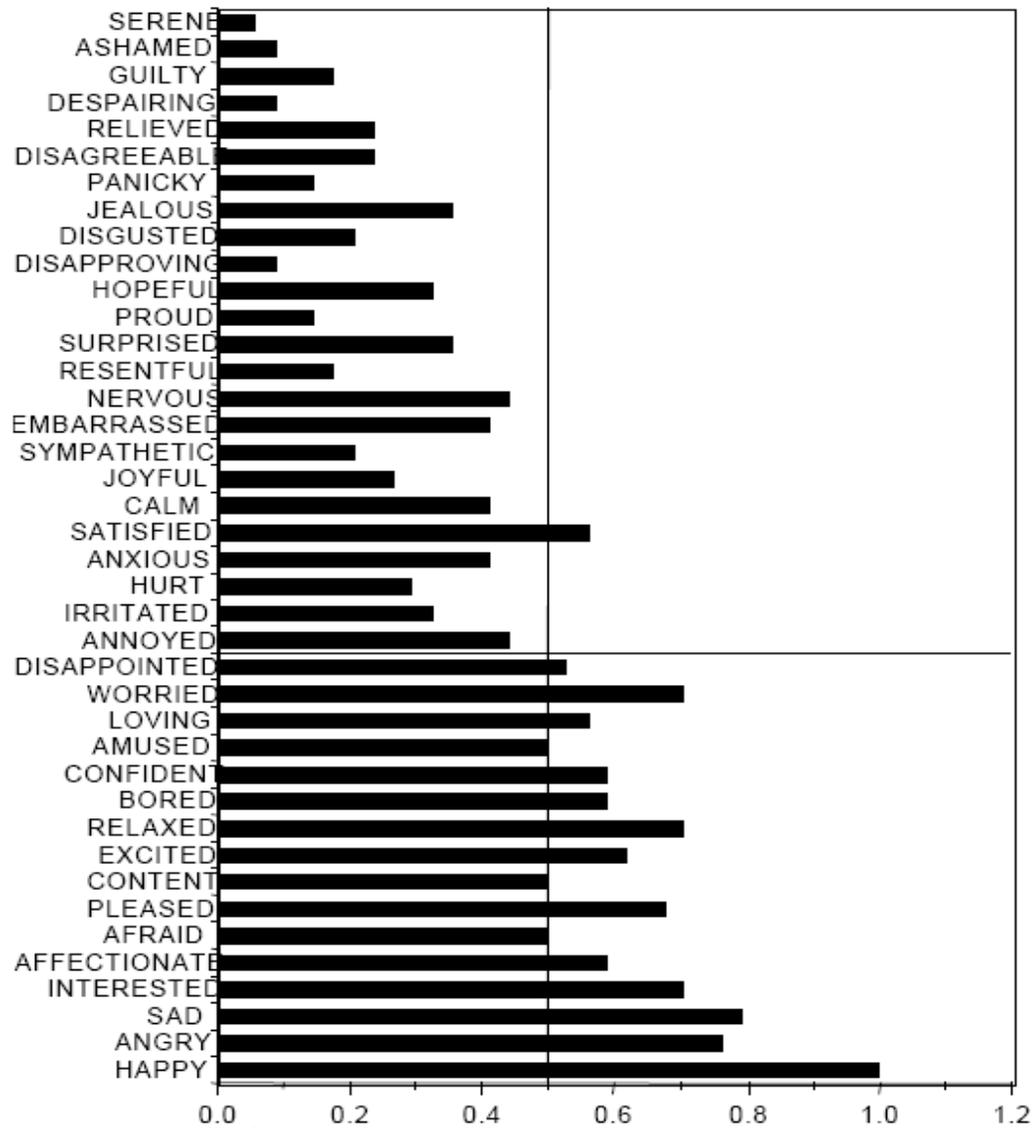
From Cowie, Douglas-Cowie, Apolloni, Taylor, Romano, & Fellenz(1999).



Axes and landmark items of evaluation/activation space as presented to subjects.

APPENDIX B

From Cowie, Douglas-Cowie, Apolloni, Taylor, Romano & Fellenz (1999).



Probability that each of 40 words will be included in a basic emotion vocabulary chosen by subjects.

APPENDIX C

The following is the verbatim text of the background questionnaire presented to participants of the study:

Hamline University Graduate School of Education

Inna Wolfson: Capstone 2004

Background Survey

1. Name:
2. Age on arrival:
3. Age at present:
4. General education:
5. English education (natural, here, there):
6. Level of English (beginning, intermediate, high, advanced):
7. Job prior to arrival:
8. Present job:

APPENDIX D

The following is the verbatim text of the emotionality questionnaire presented to participants of the study:

Hamline University Graduate School of Education

Inna Wolfson: Capstone 2004

Questionnaire

1. What is your age?
2. When did you arrive in the USA?
3. What is your level of proficiency in English?
4. When and how did you learn (start learning) English?
5. Where and with whom do you speak English?
6. How often and how fluently do you speak English?
7. Are there feelings and emotions you find easy or hard to express and understand in English?
8. What topics and situations do you find easy or hard to talk about in English?
9. Do you prefer to interact with people and share what you feel and think or do you like to be on your own and keep what you think to yourself?
10. What is / was your profession? Have you been/ are you employed?

11. Are there any difference in the way American adults and Russian-speaking adults express their emotions?
12. Are there any differences between the way you express your emotions in English and Russian?
13. What do you know of emotional competence and emotional intelligence?
14. Do you have English-speaking friends?
15. How can you describe your relationship with your American co-workers/ neighbors?
16. How often do you visit your home country?
17. Can you give any example of an emotional reaction that was different from the way Americans reacted?

APPENDIX E

The following is the verbatim text of the word emotionality worksheet presented to participants of the study:

**Hamline University Graduate School of Education
Inna Wolfson: MA in ESL
Indicating Emotionality Level**

Please translate the following basic emotion vocabulary words into Russian and indicate their level of emotional intensity/emotionality, activation, and negativity using a 5-point system.

1. ashamed
2. despairing
3. relieved
4. disgusted
5. surprised
6. embarrassed
7. satisfied
8. hurt
9. irritated
10. annoyed
11. disappointed
12. worried
13. loving
14. amused
15. bored
16. relaxed
17. excited
18. pleased
19. interested
20. disapproving

- 21. shocked
- 22. terrified
- 23. depressed
- 24. delighted
- 25. exhilarated

| Word # | Emotional level | Positive | Negative | Active | Passive |
|--------|-----------------|----------|----------|--------|---------|
| | | | | | |
| | | | | | |
| | | | | | |

APPENDIX F

The following is the verbatim text of the sentence emotionality worksheet presented to participants of the study:

**Hamline University Graduate School of Education
Inna Wolfson: MA in ESL Program
Indicating Level of Emotionality**

Please translate the following sentences into Russian and indicate their level of emotional intensity in English and Russian using a five-point system { 1=neutral; 2= slightly emotional; 3=emotional; 4=strongly emotional; 5=very strongly emotional }.

1. I am embarrassed.
2. This is embarrassing.
3. You often/always embarrass me.
4. You are embarrassing me.
5. She is excited.
6. This is exciting news.
7. It excites me.
8. It keeps exciting me.
9. He is bored.
10. This is boring.

11. She bores me.
12. They are bores.
13. He is impressed.
14. It impresses me.
15. This is impressing.
16. She is impressive.
17. It worried me.
18. I am worried.
19. I always worry.
20. I am worrying.

APPENDIX G

The following is the verbatim text of the consent form filled out by participants of the study:

Hamline University Graduate School of Education Human Subject Research Information

Dear participant in the study:

Thank you for agreeing to take part in the project concerning the acquisition and usage of emotion words by adult Russian-speaking learners of English. I am also a native Russian speaker and am doing this research study as a graduate student of Hamline University: it is a part of my MA in ESL requirement. The outcome of this study will be a thesis that will be printed and shelved in the Bush Library in Hamline University.

The purpose of this research study is to investigate the interrelations between the English and Russian languages and cultures in verbal expression of various emotions and to give suggestions pertaining better acquisition, usage, and better teaching of certain language forms and features. Along with direct participants in the study, other adult learners of English of Russian origin will benefit from the findings of this research.

As a participant in the study, you will be asked to answer interview questions, provide oral narratives prompted by two cues in English, translate some words/ phrases from English into Russian, and evaluate emotionality level of these words.

For the sake of confidentiality, your real name will not be mentioned. You may withdraw from the study at any stage without any negative consequences. The only potential “risk” or discomfort in participation in the study may be envisioned as your becoming overly emotional. If this happens, you may withdraw from the study or request any changes or accommodations (i.e. replace or rephrase the prompts or the survey questions).

The research will be conducted privately. If you have any concerns or need some clarification, please feel free to contact one of my academic supervisors:
Julia Reimer

Hamline University
1536 Hewitt Ave.
St. Paul, MN 55104
Phone: 651-523-2964; E-mail: jreimer@hamline.gw.edu

Thanks again for your help, understanding, and signing this informed consent form at the bottom. I am looking forward to conducting this project with your assistance.

Inna Wolfson
7890 Pinehurst Rd.
Woodbury, MN 55125
Phone: 651-578-1797; E-mail: iwolfson@hamline.edu

Participant's name _____

Participant's signature _____

Date _____

APPENDIX H

The following is the verbatim text of the prompts of the audio-taped narratives used in the study:

Hamline University Graduate School of Education

Inna Wolfson: MA in ESL Program

Audio-taped Narratives

- I. Please describe your feelings and emotions on and after 9/11/2001.

- II. Please describe one of your happiest childhood memories and what feelings and emotions you were experiencing at that time.

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